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WATER-SUPPLY PAPER 232

UNDERGROUND WATER RESOURCES OF CONNECTICUT

BY

HERBERT E. GREGORY

WITH

A STUDY OF THE OCCURRENCE OF WATER IN CRYSTALLINE ROCKS

BY

E. E. ELLIS

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1909

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
INTRODUCTION	9
CHAPTER I. GEOGRAPHY	11
Topography	11
General relations	11
Physiographic features	12
The highlands	12
The western highland	12
The eastern highland	14
Valleys in the highlands	14
Central lowland	16
Extent and character	16
Lava ridges	16
Farmington and Connecticut valley lowlands	17
Coast line	17
Drainage	17
Forests	20
Climate	20
Meteorological data	20
Summary	26
Surface-water supply	27
Source and character	27
Quantity available	28
Population and industries	30
CHAPTER II. GEOLOGY	31
Outline of geologic history	31
Descriptive geology	34
Introduction	34
Crystalline rocks	35
Distribution and character	35
Joints	37
Faults	38
Triassic sandstone and trap	38
Distribution	38
Stratigraphy	38
Joints	40
Faults	41
Pleistocene drift	42
Distribution and general relations	42
Character of material	42

Digitized by Google

Page.
CHAPTER III. OCCURRENCE AND RECOVERY OF GROUND WATER 44
Circulation of ground water 44
The water table 44
Movement of ground water 45
Porosity 45
Permeability 46
Artesian conditions 48
Springs 50
Amount of ground water 51
Temperature of ground water 52
Contamination 53
CHAPTER IV. GROUND WATER IN THE CRYSTALLINE ROCKS OF CONNECTICUT, by E. E. Ellis 54
Introduction 54
Literature 54
Distribution and character of crystalline rocks in Connecticut 56
Rock types 56
Granite 58
Gneiss 58
Schist 58
Quartzite schist 58
Pegmatite 59
Trap rock 59
Limestone 59
Drilling products 59
Drift 60
Conditions affecting occurrence of water in crystalline rocks 60
Introduction 60
Joints 61
Vertical joints 61
Horizontal joints 62
Relations of rock type to jointing 62
Joint direction 63
Structure planes 63
Variation in jointing 63
Faults 65
Circulation and storage of water 65
Influence of joints and other openings 65
Spacing of vertical joints 65
Spacing of horizontal joints 66
Continuity of horizontal joints 66
Continuity of vertical joints 67
Fissility and schistosity openings 67
Intersection of fractures 67
Opening of joints 68
Number of contributory joints 70
Water level 70
Direction of circulation 72
Decomposition as a measure of circulation 73
Storage of water 74

Digitized by Google

Page.

CHAPTER IV. GROUND WATER IN THE CRYSTALLINE ROCKS OF CONNECTICUT, by E. E. Ellis—Continued.
Tabulated well records 77
Practical applications 91
Percentage of failure of wells 91
Variations in yield and depth 92
Limit of depth for wells in crystalline rocks 93
Quality of water 94
Temperature of water 94
Location of wells 94
Constancy of yield 95
Flowing wells 96
Wells in varying rock types 97
Wells in granite 97
Wells in schist and gneiss 98
Wells in quartzite schist 99
Wells in phyllite 99
Wells in limestone 99
Wells in granodiorite 100
Statistical tables 101
CHAPTER V. GROUND WATER IN TRIASSIC SANDSTONES AND TRAPS 104
Introduction 104
Water within the rocks 104
Conditions of occurrence 104
In sandstone 104
In conglomerate 106
In shales 106
In trap 107
Water in bedding planes 107
Conditions of occurrence 107
Black shale 109
Water in joints 109
Vertical and horizontal joints 109
Direction and continuity of jointing 112
Spacing of joints 112
Opening of joints 113
Joints in trap 113
Water along fault lines 114
Records of wells in Triassic sandstones, conglomerates, and shales 115
Wells in trap 128
Practical applications 130
Yield of wells 130
Depth of wells 131
Quality of water 132
Temperature 132
Height of water in wells 133
Flowing wells 133
Location of wells 135
Statistical tables 136
CHAPTER VI. WATER IN THE GLACIAL DRIFT 138
Introduction 138

Digitized by Google

CHAPTER VI. WATER IN THE GLACIAL DRIFT—Continued. Page.
Character and water capacity of drift 138
Till 138
Stratified drift 139
Clay 140
The drift as a water reservoir 140
Water bed at contact of rock and drift 142
Wells in till and stratified drift 142
Water horizon 143
Depth and yield 144
Quality of water 145
Water level 146
Cost of wells 147
Records of wells in till 147
Records of wells in stratified drift 151
CHAPTER VII. WATER SUPPLY OF TYPICAL AREAS 157
Supply of a highland town—Warren 157
Supply of a lowland town—North Haven 160
Supply of a coast region—Branford Point 162
CHAPTER VIII. CHARACTER OF GROUND WATER OF CONNECTICUT 165
Introduction 165
Composition 166
Determining character 166
Hard and soft water 166
Material taken into solution 167
Normal distribution of chlorine 168
Uses of water 169
Water for domestic purposes 169
Water for boilers 169
Contamination 170
Introduction 170
Contamination by sewage 171
Location of wells 171
Depth and construction of wells 172
Contamination in different rock types 172
Contamination by sea water 174
Relative value of water supply 175
Analyses 175
CHAPTER IX. WELL CONSTRUCTION IN CONNECTICUT 180
Dug wells 180
Drilled wells 181
Driven wells 182
CHAPTER X. SPRINGS 185
Introduction 185
Types of springs 185
Seepage springs 185
Stratum springs 186
Fault and joint springs 187
Temperature of spring waters 187
Intermittent springs 188
Mineral springs 189
Volume of springs 189
Use and production of spring waters 189
Records of springs 189
BIBLIOGRAPHY 196
INDEX 197

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ILLUSTRATIONS.

Page.

PLATE I. *A*, Vertical joints in granite; *B*, Horizontal joints in granite..... 60
II. *A*, Joints in schist and metamorphosed diabase; *B*, Jointed and fissile schist..... 62
III. *A*, Flowing well at Noroton Heights; *B*, Weathering due to ground water in granite quarry..... 96
IV. *A*, Vertical and horizontal joints in sandstone; *B*, Vertical and horizontal joints in trap..... 106
V. Map of Connecticut, showing distribution of chlorine..... 168

FIGURE 1. Map of Connecticut, showing physiographic provinces..... 13
2. Diagram showing precipitation at Storrs..... 21
3. Diagram showing precipitation at New Haven..... 22
4. Diagram showing precipitation at Cream Hill..... 23
5. Diagrammatic section illustrating seepage and growth of streams... 45
6. Diagram illustrating artesian conditions where water does not rise to the surface..... 48
7. Diagram showing formation of a stratum spring at an outcrop of an inclined impervious stratum..... 50
8. Diagram illustrating the manner in which a spring may form at the contact of soil covering and the impervious rock below, when the soil is removed by erosion..... 50
9. Diagram illustrating the manner of formation of a spring at the contact of a pervious formation and an impervious formation, when dissected..... 50
10. Diagram illustrating effects of tides on water table..... 51
11. Areas of limestone, sandstone, and crystalline rock water supplies of Connecticut..... 57
12. Diagram illustrating the manner in which a well obtains water by cutting joints..... 61
13. Sketch showing relation of water level to topography..... 71
14. Logs of wells in crystalline rocks..... 77
15. Diagram illustrating depression of water surface at point of leakage in sandstone..... 105
16. Well logs showing influence of the Triassic black shale in determining water horizons..... 110
17. Well logs showing influence of the Triassic black shale in determining water horizons..... 112
18. Fault zones in sandstone..... 114
19. Section of the Connecticut Triassic as a synclinal basin—conditions favorable for artesian wells..... 134
20. Section of the Connecticut Triassic as a simple faulted monocline—conditions favorable for several small artesian basins..... 134
21. Actual condition of Connecticut Triassic—faulting and jointing developed to such an extent as to preclude the possibility of large artesian basins..... 135
22. Spring deriving its supply from joints and upward-sloping bedding planes..... 136

Digitized by Google

Page.

FIGURE 23. Section of hilltop showing suitable catchment and reservoir conditions for a water supply to the rock fractures..... 141
24. Section showing common relation of rock surface to overlying drift. 142
25. Generalized section showing relation of rock to glacial drift..... 142
26. Diagram of well at South Willington, showing water horizon at contact of till and stratified drift..... 143
27. Map of Warren, showing location of wells..... 158
28. Map of North Haven, showing location of wells..... 161
29. Map of vicinity of Branford Point, showing location of wells..... 163
30. Diagram illustrating the manner in which a well near the sea may be contaminated by salt water during the dry season..... 174
31. Diagram illustrating conditions for intermittent spring..... 188

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INTRODUCTION.

The study of the ground water of Connecticut, the results of which are presented in the following pages, was begun in 1903 with the collection and examination of well and spring records and was continued at intervals during 1904 and 1905. During the autumn of 1905 E. E. Ellis cooperated with the author in general investigations, and also made a study of the water in the crystalline rocks. In addition to the report on the special work assigned to him, Mr. Ellis has prepared parts of the chapters on occurrence and recovery of ground water, on character of water, and on well construction and has assisted in compiling data and in preparing illustrations.

For information regarding chemical analyses thanks are due to Prof. Herbert E. Smith, of New Haven, and Mr. George H. Seyms, of Hartford.

The writer wishes to express his great indebtedness to the well drillers of the State, who have freely given much valuable information regarding the occurrence and recovery of ground water. An unusual amount of carefully collected data has been furnished by Messrs. C. L. Grant, of Hartford; F. A. Champlin, of East Longmeadow, Mass.; C. L. Wright, of New Haven; R. L. Waterbury, of Glenbrook; H. B. King, of Hartford; and S. B. Hamilton, of Melrose, Mass.

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UNDERGROUND WATER RESOURCES OF CONNECTICUT.

By Herbert E. Gregory.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHY.

TOPOGRAPHY.

GENERAL RELATIONS.

In its physiographic relations Connecticut is part of the New England plateau, which is characterized by complex groupings of hills composed of igneous and metamorphic rocks; by a few broad valleys cut in softer and less resistant rock material; and by many narrow valleys intrenched in the plateau, and in the main occupied by important watercourses. Other topographic features date from the advent of the great ice sheet of Pleistocene or "Glacial" time, which completely remodeled the New England landscape, accentuating or subduing the previous topography and originating new land forms. The plateau is, however, so dissected as to present the appearance of a region of hills, valleys, and narrow plains, differing in extent and outline.

Viewed as a whole, the surface of Connecticut is a plateau sloping gradually from Cornwall and Goshen southeastward to the Sound. There are no high precipitous mountains or sharply cut canyons, but nevertheless the topography is rugged beyond the average of regions of slight elevation and great physiographic age. High cliffs and rock walls are exhibited in the trap of the central lowland and along certain streams in the highlands, but the hilltops are on the whole rounded and the ridges show a tendency to a north-south alignment. The character of the relief and the prevalence of a north-south arrangement of the hills are well shown by the railroad map of the State, some of the lines occupying north-south valleys, and others crossing the ridges. The Highland division of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad goes through the narrow defile at Bolton Notch, over the pass at Terryville, through the tunnel at Newtown, traversing 119 miles from Putnam to Danbury, though

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the direct distance between these points is but 89 miles. Likewise the Central New England Railway, running westward from Hartford, requires 67 miles of track to reach the New York state line, a distance of 44 miles, and crosses the Highlands at Norfolk Summit, an elevation of 1,298.58 feet. Norfolk, 2 miles farther west, with an elevation of 1,210.7 feet, is the highest railroad station in the State. The "Air Line" of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad from Willimantic to Middletown is a short and direct east-west route, but its construction required expensive cuts and fills and bridges, and the grades are unsuitable for heavy traffic. On the other hand, the Northampton division of the same railroad, extending northward from New Haven to the Massachusetts line, is but 1 mile longer than the distance as measured on a map; and the Hartford division, which traverses the lowland from New Haven to Thompsonville, exceeds a direct line by only 2 miles. Even in the heart of the highland areas, the Central Vermont Railway crosses the State in a north-south direction along the winding courses of Shetucket and Willimantic rivers with but 8 miles of track more than the direct distance. In fact, if a railroad were to be constructed from Putnam in a straight line westward across the State the difficulties of operation would be scarcely less than those encountered in truly mountainous districts.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC FEATURES.

Physiographically, Connecticut may be divided into the western highland, occupying that portion of the State west of a line running from New Haven to North Granby; the eastern highland, between Rhode Island and a line through Somers, Rockville, Glastonbury, Middletown, and Branford; and the central lowland, occupying the remainder of the area. (See fig. 1.) These three provinces have characteristic groupings of topographic features which have a direct bearing on the water resources of the State and which have been the controlling factors in its settlement and industrial history.

THE HIGHLANDS.

Western highland.—The western highland increases in elevation from the Sound northward and contains areas of considerable size over 1,000 feet in height. In Barkhamsted the plateau reaches an elevation of 1,400 feet, in Colebrook of 1,500 feet, in Goshen and Cornwall of 1,600 feet, and in Norfolk of 1,700 feet, and it culminates in Bear Mountain, Salisbury, at 2,355 feet. The plateau terminates abruptly on the east and at certain points, as Compounce Pond, the rise from the lowland is precipitous. Differences in elevation and in character and prominence of rock outcrops and the presence of numerous valleys of widely varying depth, width, and extent, give the highlands an appearance of great complexity. They are not,

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however, a "region of disorderly hills," but have been controlled in topographic development by geologic forces whose influence was felt throughout southern New England. It was noticed by Percival [a] that the highlands "may both be regarded as extensive plateaus,"

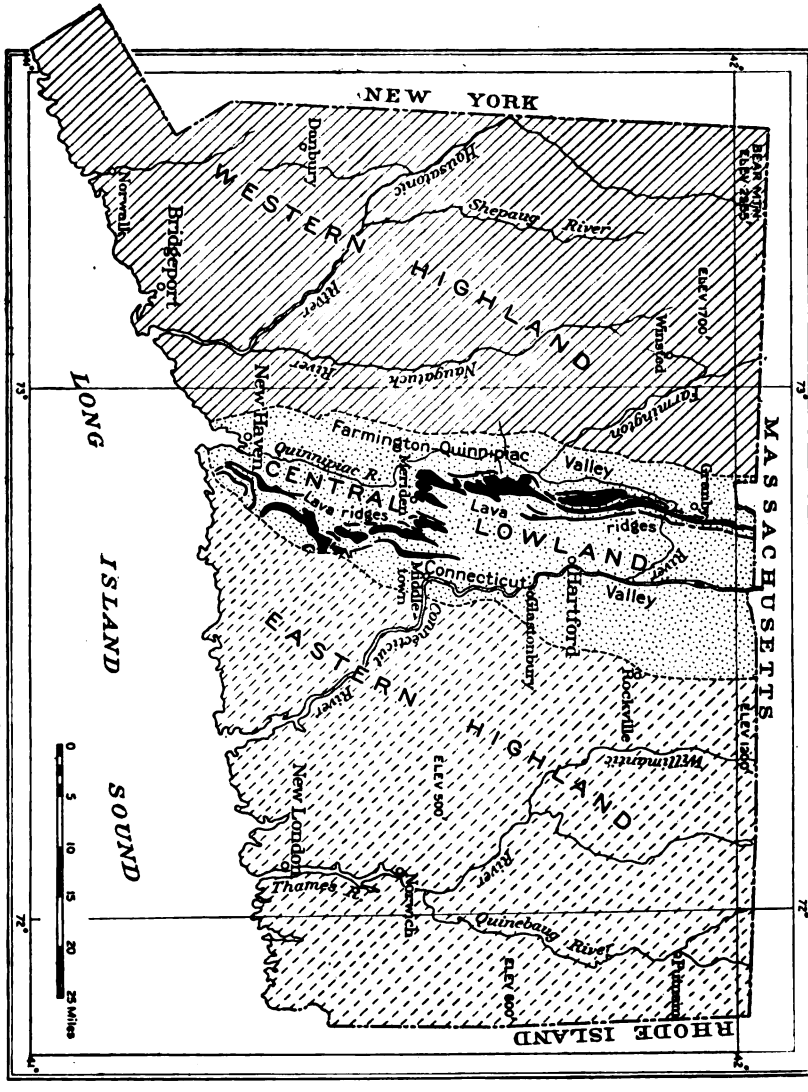

FIGURE 1.—Map of Connecticut, showing physiographic provinces.

which "present, when viewed from an elevated point on their surface, the appearance of a general level, with a rolling or undulating outline, over which the view often extends to a very great distance, interrupted only by isolated summits or ridges, usually of small ex-

[a] Percival, J. G., Report on the geology of Connecticut, 1842, p. 477.

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tent." A good view from any exposed point in the highlands confirms this impression of a plateau surface rather than a confused mingling of hills. As concisely stated by Professor Rice:[a] "If we should imagine a sheet of pasteboard resting upon the summits of the highest elevations of Litchfield County and sloping southeastward in an inclined plane, that imaginary sheet of pasteboard would rest on nearly all the summits of both the eastern and the western highlands." Certain mountains project above the general level of the plateau and many valleys are cut below it. Owing to the resistant character of the rocks composing them, Great Hill, Cobalt, 700 feet; Lantern Hill, Mystic, 520 feet; Mount Horr, Canton, 880 feet; Mount Prospect, Litchfield, 1,365 feet; Mount Haystack, Norfolk, 1,680 feet; and other points stand out as prominent landmarks above the general surface at their base.

The origin of the highland plateau is revealed by an examination of the composition and structure of its basement rock, which clearly shows that the surface as it now exists is not the result of accumulation of sediments of great thickness. The bed rock of the highlands is not sedimentary nor horizontal, but is metamorphic and igneous rock which has been folded and twisted and injected, and which could have been formed only at a great depth below the earth's surface. Mountains have been removed from western and eastern Connecticut, and the remaining rocks, with their bewildering complexity of structure, are but the stumps of old land masses which have been sawed horizontally across by the agents of erosion. If the present valleys were filled and a few projecting hills cut down the conditions of Cretaceous time would be restored and the highlands would appear as a plain—the result of long-continued, ceaseless activity on the part of rain, frost, and streams.

Eastern highland.—The counterpart of the western highland is found in the eastern part of the State, but the eastern highland represents much less contrast in relief and does not attain such altitudes. Practically all the prominent hills and ridges in this province are under 700 feet in height, and only in the towns along the Massachusetts line is an elevation of 1,000 feet attained, the culminating points being Rattlesnake Hill, Somers, 1,080 feet; Bald Mountain, Somers, 1,120 feet; Soapstone Mountain, Somers, 1,061 feet; Hedgehog Hill, Stafford, 1,180 feet; Bald Hill, Union, 1,286 feet; Stickney Hill, Union, 1,220 feet; Lead Mine Hill, Union, 1,140 feet; Snow Hill, Ashford, 1,213 feet; and Hatchet Hill, Woodstock, 1,040 feet.

Valleys in the highlands.—The valleys in the highlands are those which have been cut since the formation of the peneplain (see p. 33), and their character is determined by the rocks which they traverse and by the age and size of the streams which have occupied them.

[a] Rice, W. N., and Gregory, H. E., Manual of Connecticut geology, 1906, p. 20.

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The western highland is traversed by two well-marked valleys—those of Housatonic-Norwalk and Naugatuck-Still rivers, which inclose a rectangle of the highest land within the State. These valleys are intrenched 400 to 600 feet in the plateau and, although not occupied by continuous streams, they constitute the only feasible lines of communication between the northern and southern parts of the western highland. The two valleys are connected by the gorgelike trough of the Housatonic, which cuts through the rock ridges with a fall of 10 feet per mile. The Housatonic Valley at Danbury and at Canaan and the Naugatuck-Still Valley at Winsted widen into undulating plains. The Farmington Valley through the highlands is a gorge less than 1,000 feet in width below Riverton, and still narrower at Hartland, where it is sunk 600 feet below the plateau, and at Satans Kingdom it is barely 200 feet wide. Nearly all the minor streams of the western highland are intrenched in fairly narrow valleys, except the Pomperaug, which meanders freely over a miniature lowland on Triassic sediments.

In the eastern highland the valleys entering the lowland are mostly short and narrow and of high gradient. One important valley gorge, now occupied by Connecticut River, leads from the central lowland southeastward to the Sound. The Thames Valley is a fiord to Norwich. Its eastern branch, the Quinnebaug, is a steep-walled valley to South Canterbury, above which it widens into a plain through Plainfield, Killingly, and Putnam. The Shetucket-Willimantic Valley is broad and open through most of its course, as are also its northern branches, which divide the highland into segments.

The floor of the highland valleys is bed rock, till, or stratified drift, no stream having entirely removed the cover of glacial drift along its path. Some streams, in fact, like the east branch of the Farmington, flow through almost their entire courses without reaching bed rock.

A glance at the topographic map shows that the chief valleys trend either north and south or northwest and southeast. For example, the Housatonic from Gaylordsville to Derby, the Connecticut from Middletown to Lyme, the Farmington from Colebrook to Farmington, and the Shetucket and many valleys of lesser size are alike in their north-south alignment. The upper Connecticut, the Willimantic, the Mount Hope, Little River (Windham County), and several minor streams trend in a common direction. There is nothing in the nature of the rock which accounts for the common alignment of these two groups of valleys and, if only present geologic conditions are taken into account, the southeasterly courses of the Housatonic below New Milford and of the Connecticut below Middletown are anomalous, for these rivers leave well-developed valleys of limestone and sandstone and cut their way through the most resistant gneisses and schists. There seems no escape from the conclusion that they

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established their courses on an ancient coastal plain which sloped to the southeast. As a result of the uplift and consequent erosion, the strata forming the plain have been removed, but the streams have maintained their original directions, cutting valleys deep into the rocks of the plateau. (See p. 19.)

It has been shown by Hobbs[a] that the main valley lines of the State coincide in direction with five prominent systems of joints and faults and there is doubtless some genetic relationship between the joints and the trend of trough lines.

CENTRAL LOWLAND.

Extent and character.—The central lowland differs from the highlands in altitude, character of bed rock, drainage, and types of hills and valleys. In extent it is coincident with the larger of the two areas of Triassic sediments within the State. Except in the lava ridges, the altitude of the lowland averages about 100 feet and only in the region south of Middletown does it exceed 500 feet. As viewed from the highlands—for instance, at Bald Mountain, Somers, or Box Mountain, Bolton, from Bristol, or from the ridges near Canton—the lowland surface appears as a plain from which rise ridges of lava. The edges of the highland areas, as viewed from the lowland, present abrupt walls, as seen in Southington and Somers, or steeply rising slopes. In Glastonbury, Middletown, and Branford the lowland merges imperceptibly into the highland.

Lava ridges.—The most marked topographic feature of the lowland and, in fact, of the entire State, is the series of basalt ridges which extend from North Granby to East Haven. As far south as Meriden the ridges form a continuous line of elevation broken only by gaps and passes. From the Hanging Hills this ridge line passes by a series of rough steps to Beseck Mountain and thence continues southward as Totoket and Saltonstall ridges.

The most prominent parts of this ridge system are Peak Mountain, 665 feet; Talcott Range, the highest point of which is 960 feet; Rattlesnake Mountain, 750 feet; Ragged Mountain, 754 feet; Hanging Hills, 700 to 1,000 feet; Lamentation Mountains, 654 and 725 feet; Higby Mountain, 920 feet; Beseck Mountain, 840 feet; Pistapaug Mountain, 640 feet; Totoket Mountain, 780 feet; Saltonstall Ridge, 240–245 feet. The culminating point is West Peak, Meriden, 1,007 feet, which is fully up to the level of the highlands and furnishes a magnificent view of the Farmington-Quinnipiac Valley and the Wolcott Plateau beyond. The ridge of lava faces westward as a bold escarpment, but slopes gently to the east, where it merges into the lowland floor. Breaks through the ridge formed by streams or by faults furnish passes for railroads at Tariffville, New Britain, Meriden, and Bailleyville.

[a] Hobbs, W. H., River system of Connecticut: Jour. Geology, vol. 9, 1901, pp. 469-485.

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Farmington and Connecticut valley lowlands.—The central ridge of lava forms a conspicuous and effective line of demarkation between the two parts of the central lowland—the Connecticut Valley and the Farmington-Quinnipiac Valley.

The Connecticut Valley area from Thompsonville to Middletown is practically a plain of drift and till 5 to 10 miles in width and with differences in elevation of less than 200 feet. South and west of Middletown the valley area passes by gradual stages into the eastern highland and the central ridges. The elevations in the Connecticut Valley lowland are drumlins and other glacial deposits and till-covered sandstone knolls. The streams tributary to the Connecticut are ditches cut into glacial deposits. The Scantic, Podunk, Hockanum, and others seldom reveal rock floor; Stony Brook (Suffield) is the type of a few streams which have cut through the drift to the sandstone below.

The Farmington-Quinnipiac Valley extends from New Haven northward across the State and is bounded on the west by the steep edge of the western highland and on the east by the broken wall of the central ridge. It is occupied by three rivers—the Farmington, Quinnipiac, and Mill (New Haven)—all of which, in common with their tributaries, flow almost entirely on glacial drift. From the floor of the Farmington-Quinnipiac Valley rise a number of trap hills which break the continuity of the plain. The most prominent of these are the Barndoor Hills, 600 to 700 feet; Mount Carmel, 737 feet; West Rock, 405 feet; and East Rock, 359 feet. The level, drift-filled floor of this valley lowland, together with the slight difference in elevation between New Haven and the Congamuck ponds, made the valley an attractive route for a canal, which was built in 1829 and was later succeeded by the Northampton Railroad.

COAST LINE.

The coast line is much indented and presents a multitude of bays, headlands, points, inlets, and marshes. Rock islands occur in groups, as at Norwalk and off Branford, or are scattered irregularly along the shore. Westward-moving tides and currents have built innumerable beaches, bars, and spits along the coast, thus greatly modifying its original outline. The character of the coast is due to the fact that the land has been depressed, allowing the sea water to enter the old valley now constituting Long Island Sound and to drown the irregular southern edge of the denuded peneplain.

DRAINAGE.

Connecticut is drained largely by streams which rise within its borders. Only two streams of large size—the Connecticut and the Housatonic—carry water from lands beyond the State, and the

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Massachusetts section of the Housatonic serves but a small area. The three main river systems are the Housatonic, the Connecticut, and the Thames, which drain, respectively, 1,272, 1,443, and 1,164 square miles, or altogether 78 per cent of the surface.

Of the streams which enter Long Island Sound independently—the Byram, Mianus, Mill (Stamford), Norwalk, Saugatuck, Mill (Fairfield), Poquonock, Wopowaug, West, Mill (New Haven), Quinnipiac, Hammonassett, Niantic, Mystic, Pawcatuck, and certain smaller ones—the Quinnipiac, 35 miles long, is the only one over 20 miles in length, and all have small drainage basins.

In a number of places the divides between adjoining drainage areas are ill defined and a few stream systems coalesce. Thus the limestone valley extending from New Preston to Bedford, N. Y., an area of slight relief, is drained by five streams that have independent outlets to the sea—the Mianus, Norwalk, Saugatuck, Housatonic, and the Croton (a tributary to the Hudson). Likewise the Quinebaug, Bigelow Brook, the Natchaug, and the Shetucket together form a closed ring of water surrounding ten towns in the northeastern part of the State.

The lower ends of the streams entering the Sound are drowned, and the tides, 4 to 7 feet in height, reach up these streams to a greater or less distance. For example, the Connecticut is tidal to Hartford, 44 miles; the Thames to Norwich, 15 miles; the Housatonic to Derby, 11 miles; the Quinnipiac to Quinnipiac, 10 miles. Accordingly the lower reaches of the streams along the coast line are of no value for water supplies.

The streams of the highlands have steep gradients and their flow is interrupted by numerous waterfalls and rapids. This is particularly true of the streams entering the central lowland and of small streams in general. Thus, the Farmington from Cold Spring, Mass., to New Hartford falls 29.76 feet to the mile; the Shepaug descends at the rate of 30.5 feet to the mile, making one drop, at Bantam, of 108 feet in less than three-quarters of a mile; Moodus River falls 350 feet in 2 miles. Even the Housatonic falls 3.5 feet to the mile from Stratford to Shepaug; 10.2 feet to the mile from Shepaug to a station 1.8 miles above Cornwall bridge; 19.4 feet to the mile from this last-named point to Falls Village; and 9.2 feet to the mile from Falls Village to Ashley Falls, one-half mile north of the Connecticut boundary line. The descent of the Housatonic is accomplished by stretches of gravelly rapids alternating with reaches of relatively quiet water, but at New Milford, Bulls Bridge, and Falls Village there is an abrupt drop over rock ledges. At Falls Village the combined height of the falls is about 100 feet.[a]

[a] Porter, Dwight, Report on water power of the region tributary to Long Island Sound: Tenth Census, vol. 16, 1885.

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The streams of the lowland area have slight fall and in some places are aggrading their valleys. The Scantic, Hockanum, Farmington, Pequabuck, Mill (New Haven), Farm, and others are sluggish streams which meander freely. The Quinnipiac, with a drainage basin of 156 square miles and a length of 35 miles, falls 5 feet to the mile from Plantsville to New Haven. The Connecticut has a fall of only 0.6 foot to the mile from Enfield Rapids to Hartford; and from Hartford to Saybrook no fall whatever. The entire fall of Connecticut River in crossing the State in the lowlands is about 30 feet, as compared with the fall of Housatonic and Willimantic-Shetucket-Thames rivers in the highlands—650 and 600 feet, respectively. There are, however, many waterfalls and rapids of considerable size and great picturesqueness along the streams of the central lowland.

Lakes, swamps, and salt marshes occupy 145 square miles of the State, the topographic map showing 1,026 lakes, the largest of which is Lake Bantam, with an area of 1.56 square miles, or 999 acres. Swamps are even more abundant than lakes, and if the smaller, partly drained ones are taken into account they number several thousand. The importance of these water bodies is evident. They furnish supplies for cities, add greatly to the beauty of the landscape, and are particularly effective in controlling the drainage, serving as reservoirs to retard the escape of rainfall and thus preventing destructive floods.

A glance at the map of Connecticut will show that the drainage is to the southeast and that the streams flow in accord with the general slope of the plateau, but even a superficial glance reveals the fact that not all the larger streams are in the prominent valleys and that many occupy positions where the bed rock is unfavorable for valley development. The Connecticut, for instance, instead of following the sandstone to New Haven, leaves the lowland at Middletown and turns abruptly into the crystalline rocks of the highlands, through which it has cut a deep gorge. Likewise the Housatonic, which follows a limestone valley down to Still River, turns southeastward across rugged crystalline rocks instead of continuing in the valley indicated by rock structure. The same is true of a number of smaller streams. Anomalies of another class are illustrated in the arrangement of certain smaller streams whose direction and grade, as well as character of valley, are entirely out of accord with the present topography. For example, Still River at New Milford and a stream of the same name at Winsted flow in a direction contrary to the slope of their valleys and enter their master streams by dropping over falls. The Farmington follows the slope of the ancient peneplain from Colebrook River to Farmington, there turns northward, cuts through a trap ridge at Tariffville, and finally reaches the Sound after flowing a dis-

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tance of 103 miles instead of the necessary 64 miles to New Haven or 74 miles by way of the Connecticut at Middletown.

Without going further into detail, it may be stated that the characteristic features of the present drainage are due to two main causes. First, the streams were established on a peneplain during Cretaceous time and followed the slope to the south and southeast regardless of the character of the underlying rocks. The Connecticut, Housatonic, and other streams have maintained this inherited position. Second, the entire drainage of the State has been modified by glaciation. The courses of some streams have been reversed, other streams have been cut in two, and still others have been entirely obliterated or are represented by lakes and swamps. In fact a widespread rearrangement of streams as to direction and grade has been brought about.

FORESTS.

The distribution of forests in the State follows closely the subdivisions into highland and lowland areas. The eastern and western highlands are largely forest covered, and in recent years the forest areas have been encroaching on the agricultural districts. In the central lowland the soil, transportation facilities, and nearness to market render agriculture more remunerative, and the forests are represented by small, scattered wood lots. Taken as a whole, Connecticut is a well-timbered country, 39 per cent of its area being covered with trees.

CLIMATE.

METEOROLOGICAL DATA.[a]

Sixteen climatological stations are maintained by the United States Weather Bureau in Connecticut—at Bridgeport, Canton, Colchester, Cream Hill, Danielson, Hartford, Hawleyville, New Haven, New London, North Grosvenordale, Norwalk, Southington, Storrs, Torrington, Voluntown, and Waterbury. In Falls Village, Middletown, South Manchester, Wallingford, and West Simsbury record is kept of rainfall and temperature.

The following tables and figures 2, 3, and 4 present data collected at three selected stations; one in the eastern highland—Storrs, at an elevation of 640 feet; one in the central lowland—New Haven, elevation 25 feet; and the third in the western highland—Cream Hill, elevation 1,300 feet. The tables for the New Haven station give records of rainfall, temperature, humidity, and wind velocity, which are controlling factors in ground-water supply.

[a] From United States Weather Bureau records.

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Precipitation (in inches) at Storrs, 1897–1906.

[Elevation, 640 feet.]

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1897	3.84	3.40	3.66	2.37	4.44	2.79	12.24	5.23	1.39	0.92	7.14	5.61	53.03
1898	4.70	4.03	3.00	4.44	3.81	2.48	6.24	5.87	2.22	6.18	6.11	1.96	51.13
1899	3.70	3.97	6.30	2.20	1.27	3.72	5.55	3.27	3.31	1.54	2.10	2.14	39.13
1900	3.42	7.31	6.73	2.67	4.91	4.32	2.76	2.03	2.27	3.00	6.79	2.22	48.43
1901	2.17	1.05	7.18	9.51	6.30	1.96	5.54	7.58	4.33	1.97	3.04	9.55	60.18
1902	2.53	5.11	6.35	3.88	1.59	3.24	7.48	2.17	7.05	5.68	1.10	5.86	53.75
1903	3.79	5.18	7.09	2.81	.50	9.24	4.56	4.52	1.81	2.79	1.95	4.27	48.51
1904	4.55	2.80	3.31	6.40	1.96	2.53	1.85	6.00	4.71	2.19	1.47	2.42	40.19
1905	3.57	1.21	3.45	2.87	.90	4.53	1.77	2.63	5.79	2.57	2.73	4.12	36.14
1906	3.16	2.68	5.46	4.40	5.87	2.18	5.03	2.16	2.05	4.85	2.39	2.80	43.63
Mean	3.54	3.67	5.25	4.16	3.15	3.70	5.30	4.15	3.49	3.17	3.48	4.10	47.16

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	11.31	12.56	13.15	10.14

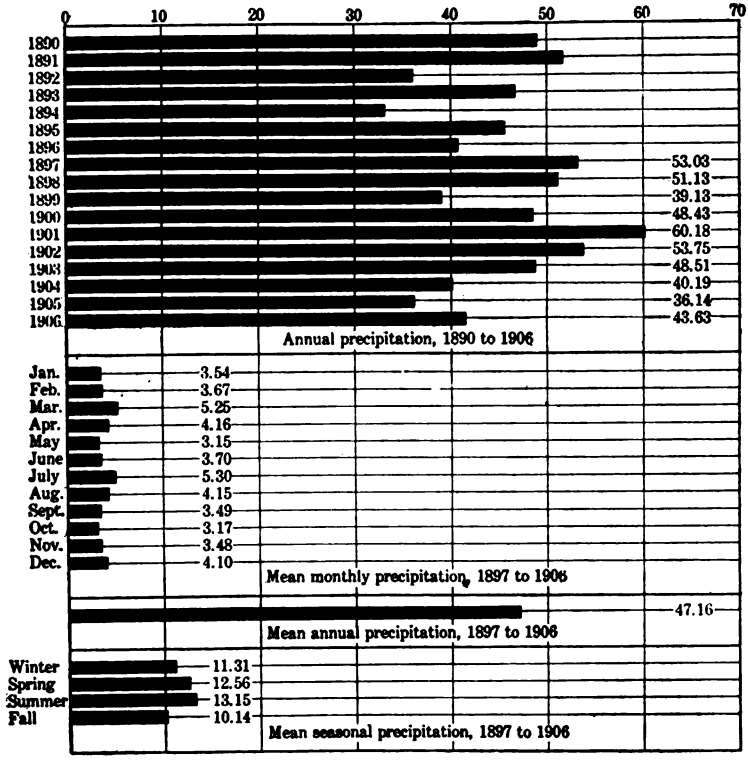

FIGURE 2.—Diagram showing precipitation, in inches, at Storrs.

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Precipitation (in inches) at New Haven, 1897–1906.

[Elevation, 25 feet.]

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1897	3.85	2.00	3.66	2.44	5.03	2.47	10.63	6.81	2.42	1.25	5.72	5.61	57.80
1898	4.90	4.55	2.54	4.43	8.03	.21	5.03	6.65	2.30	7.22	5.69	2.11	53.66
1899	4.33	3.39	7.28	1.79	5.52	2.59	4.17	.65	3.33	1.78	1.89	1.56	35.28
1900	3.60	6.39	4.21	1.95	3.30	1.79	2.28	.90	2.10	2.03	4.14	2.14	34.83
1901	1.38	.54	5.80	9.03	6.38	.25	4.40	6.92	5.70	2.95	1.61	7.65	68.81
1902	1.83	3.58	4.63	3.40	1.61	4.35	3.26	2.14	5.84	6.41	.79	6.49	44.33
1903	3.17	3.98	5.09	2.61	.31	7.41	2.17	6.96	2.20	2.94	1.85	2.53	41.22
1904	2.78	2.52	3.28	6.64	2.94	2.46	2.08	6.27	4.96	2.21	1.95	3.64	41.73
1905	4.14	2.06	2.96	3.42	1.18	5.87	2.86	7.20	5.07	2.21	1.53	4.83	43.33
1906	3.20	2.45	5.67	4.48	4.75	5.14	5.62	1.13	4.82	7.44	2.42	4.18	51.30
Mean	3.32	3.15	4.51	4.02	3.91	3.25	4.25	4.56	3.87	3.64	2.76	4.07	45.31

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	10.54	12.44	12.06	10.27

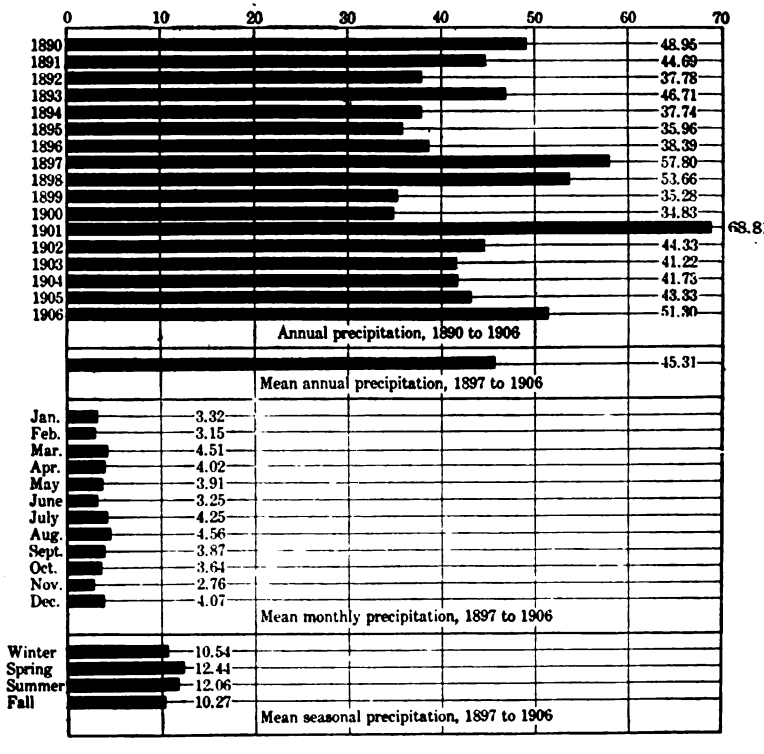

FIGURE 3.—Diagram showing precipitation, in inches, at New Haven.

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The average precipitation at New Haven for thirty years ending December 31, 1903, was as follows:

Average precipitation at New Haven for thirty years ending December 31, 1903.

	Inches.		Inches.
January	4.03	November	3.73
February	4.02	December	3.79
March	4.51	Annual	47.97
April	3.45		
May	3.71	Mean for season:	
June	2.97	Winter	11.84
July	5.01	Spring	11.67
August	4.81	Summer	12.79
September	3.66	Fall	11.67
October	4.28		

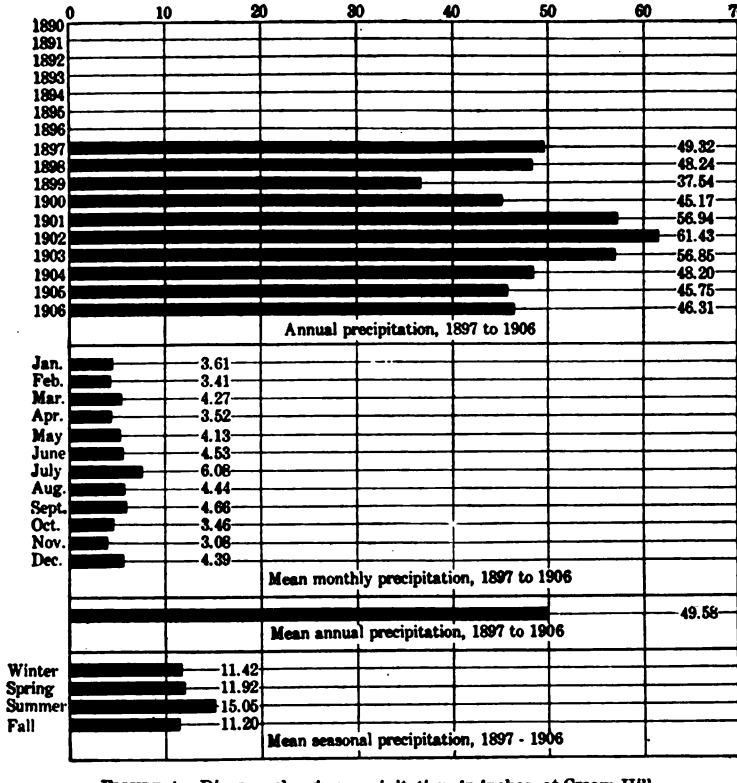

FIGURE 4.—Diagram showing precipitation, in inches, at Cream Hill.

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Precipitation (in inches) at Cream Hill, 1897–1906.

[Elevation, 1,300 feet.]

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1897	3.54	2.21	2.09	3.16	4.22	5.15	9.71	5.28	2.85	1.04	5.54	4.53	49.32
1898	3.52	3.68	2.37	4.31	6.70	2.87	1.79	6.77	4.25	3.35	6.46	2.17	48.24
1899	3.47	4.13	5.84	1.47	1.75	3.39	6.70	1.11	4.21	1.67	1.59	2.21	37.54
1900	2.82	5.97	3.84	1.95	5.13	4.42	6.09	2.18	1.75	2.73	5.29	3.00	45.17
1901	1.52	.84	7.33	6.83	6.90	1.69	4.57	6.97	4.52	4.37	3.26	8.14	56.94
1902	3.26	4.90	4.68	4.76	2.99	5.06	9.40	4.70	7.83	5.42	.75	7.68	61.43
1903	3.93	4.97	4.94	3.20	1.39	9.74	4.07	5.65	2.85	6.39	3.10	6.65	56.85
1904	4.69	3.13	4.46	3.12	4.28	3.52	6.15	3.89	7.90	2.71	1.24	3.09	48.20
1905	6.91	1.68	3.12	2.74	2.35	3.90	5.83	4.71	6.83	2.90	2.19	2.59	45.75
1906	2.41	2.55	4.06	3.67	5.61	5.60	6.47	3.14	3.58	4.02	1.36	3.84	46.31
Mean	3.61	3.41	4.27	3.52	4.13	4.53	6.08	4.44	4.66	3.46	3.08	4.39	49.58

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	11.41	11.92	15.05	11.20

The average precipitation recorded at ten stations in Connecticut for the years 1893–1903 is as follows:

Average precipitation at ten stations in Connecticut, 1893–1903.

	Inches.
January	4.28
February	3.94
March	4.23
April	3.53
May	4.03
June	2.95
July	4.42
August	4.30
September	3.34
October	4.04
November	4.48
December	3.44
Annual	46.98
Mean for season:	
Winter	11.66
Spring	11.79
Summer	11.67
Fall	11.86

Monthly and annual temperature (°F.) at Storrs, 1893–1903.

[Elevation, 640 feet.]

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
Mean	24	24	36	46	56	64	69	68	61	50	38	30	47
Highest monthly mean	28	28	43	48	60	68	72	70	64	54	44	33	.....
Lowest monthly mean	17	19	29	42	54	59	65	62	56	45	34	23	.....

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	26	46	67	50

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Monthly and annual temperature (°F.) at New Haven, 1873–1903.

[Elevation, 25 feet.]

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
Mean	28	29	35	46	58	66	72	70	64	53	41	32	50
Highest monthly mean	37	36	45	52	64	71	76	73	70	58	47	39	.....
Lowest monthly mean	20	20	27	39	51	61	68	65	59	48	34	26	.....

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	30	46	69	53

For thirty-one years the highest temperature at New Haven was 100°, in September, 1881, and the lowest was 14° below zero, in January, 1873.

Monthly and annual temperature (°F.) at Cream Hill, 1897–1907.

[Elevation, 1,300 feet.]

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
Mean	23.1	22.0	32.9	44.0	56.0	64.0	69.4	66.6	61.4	51.0	36.7	26.0	46
Highest monthly mean	30.2	26.6	39.2	45.4	59.0	66.0	72.1	70.6	64.6	54.6	42.4	29.7	.....
Lowest monthly mean	17.3	16.3	26.0	40.6	53.8	60.0	66.1	61.2	58.6	47.6	32.2	21.4	.....

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	23.7	43.3	66.7	49.7

Mean relative humidity (per cent) at New Haven, 1901–1906.

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1901	72	62	74	77	79	70	80	83	80	76	67	77	75
1902	70	69	76	69	65	71	77	75	84	78	79	72	74
1903	71	73	78	65	65	82	73	79	79	79	68	69	73
1904	72	67	72	70	69	75	75	77	80	68	72	70	72
1905	68	63	71	66	71	74	76	81	80	71	67	70	72
1906	74	69	69	63	70	75	82	81	77	76	67	72	73
Mean	71	67	73	68	70	75	77	79	80	75	70	71	73

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season	70	70	77	75

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Mean relative humidity (per cent) at New Haven for fifteen years ending in 1903.

Time.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
8 a. m.	74	73	71	74	77	78	80	80	78	76	75	76	76
8 p. m.	71	72	69	74	76	78	78	80	76	74	72	72	74

Average velocity (miles per hour) and direction of wind at New Haven, 1900–1905.

Year.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual.
1900—Vel.	10.1	11.3	10.6	9.5	9.1	8.8	8.1	7.1	8.1	9.0	10.7	8.9	9.3
Dir.	N.	W.	N.	N.	SW.	SW.	SW.	SW.	SW.	N.	N.	SW.	S.W
1901—Vel.	9.9	11.2	11.0	13.3	9.8	7.8	6.8	6.9	7.1	8.6	10.2	10.4	9.4
Dir.	N.	NW.	NW.	NE.	S.	S.	SW.	S.	SW.	N.	NW.	N.	N.
1902—Vel.	9.8	13.0	11.4	9.9	9.2	8.4	7.2	7.2	8.4	8.2	9.4	10.8	9.4
Dir.	NW.	W.	N.	S.	SW.	SW.	SW.	NW.	N.	.N	N.	N.	N.
1903—Vel.	10.2	10.0	9.5	11.7	8.0	8.5	7.8	7.3	7.9	11.3	8.4	10.9	9.3
Dir.	N.	W.	NE.	N.	S.	NE.	SW.	N.	SW.	N.	N.	W.	N.
1904—Vel.	10.3	10.6	10.1	10.7	8.2	8.2	8.2	7.7	8.3	9.5	9.0	10.7	9.3
Dir.	N.	N.	NW.	NW.	S.	S.	S.	S.	N.	N.	NW.	N.	N.
1905—Vel.	11.2	10.7	8.2	10.1	9.0	7.8	7.8	7.9	8.3	8.6	9.8	9.7	9.1
Dir.	N.	W.	N.	NW.	S.	S.	S.	SW.	N.	N.	NW.	SW.	N.
Mean—Vel.	10.3	11.1	10.1	10.9	8.9	8.3	7.7	7.4	8.0	9.2	9.6	10.2	9.3
Dir.	N.	W.	N.	N. NW.	S.	S.	SW.	S. SW.	N. SW.	N.	N. NW.	N.	N.

	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Fall.
Mean for season—Vel.	10.5	10.0	7.8	8.9
Dir.	N.	N.	S. SW.	N.

Prevailing winds at New Haven for thirty-one years.

January	North.	August	South.
February	North.	September	Southwest.
March	Northwest.	October	North.
April	Northwest.	November	North.
May	South.	December	North.
June	South.	Annual	North.
July	South.		

SUMMARY.

The foregoing tables indicate that the climate of Connecticut possesses both continental and oceanic features directly related to the highlands and to Long Island Sound. The winters are long and severe; the summers are short, beginning abruptly in June and passing gradually into winter through autumn. Areas of high and low barometer which affect the weather of the State pass to the north down the St. Lawrence Valley, along the coast or directly across the State. Precipitation is uniformly abundant, and excessively dry years are unknown. There has been little change in the annual amount of rain for one hundred years, and the variation in seasonal amount is slight. (See figs. 2 to 4.) In fact, Connecticut may well serve as a type of uniform, evenly distributed rainfall of ample amount, in contrast with regions of seasonal rains and great annual variation.

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The relation of temperature to ground-water problems is shown by the fact that percolation through sand is nearly twice as rapid at 100° F. as at 50°, and, accordingly, the amount of rainfall absorbed by the ground is subject to large monthly and seasonal variation. The proportion of the total precipitation found in the ground at each month in the year is given in the following table:[a]

Humidity of the ground.

Month.	Per cent at—			Month.	Per cent at—		
	1 foot.	2 feet.	3 feet.		1 foot.	2 feet.	3 feet.
January	89	95	98	July	20	15	10
February	76	82	88	August	32	28	22
March	66	72	77	September	44	40	34
April	54	57	65	October	57	52	48
May	44	45	48	November	66	64	67
June	32	30	30	December	82	74	83

SURFACE WATER SUPPLY.

SOURCE AND CHARACTER.

Of the water which falls as rain, a part is evaporated, another part enters the ground, and a third part goes directly into streams and is thus carried to the sea. The amount of water which is carried by streams has been approximately determined (see tables below), but there are no records of the amount evaporated, and accordingly the proportion of the rainfall absorbed by rocks and soils, and therefore available for springs and wells, is unknown. However, the amount evaporated is certainly small and, for rough calculations, the total rainfall may be divided into that which enters the ground (ground water) and that which is carried in streams (run-off).

The relation of rainfall to run-off can not be stated definitely, because several factors of unknown value are included. The rate of precipitation, the topography of the surface, the texture of the soil, and the structure of the rocks are all to be considered. The presence of lakes and swamps along the stream's course and on its catchment area modify the surface run-off, and a large but unknown amount of ground water enters streams and lakes without reaching the surface. For instance, Lake Saltonstall has a small drainage area—4 square miles—and should receive 4,000,000 gallons of water a day. It actually receives, however, a much larger amount than can be accounted for by ordinary surface drainage and is presumably fed by subterranean springs and ground-water seepage.

The presence of forests affects the relation of rainfall to run-off by increasing and regulating the flow of ground water. Deforestation

[a] Sherman, Connecticut Almanac, 1885, p. 39.

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promotes evaporation, increases the run-off, and tends to produce seasons of flood.

The general run-off of streams in the eastern part of the United States is 0.05 to 0.5 cubic foot per square mile per second, and streams tributary to Long Island Sound carry 17½ to 27½ inches of rainfall out of an annual total of 40 to 52 inches.[a] Variation in annual run-off is indicated by the record of Connecticut River, which shows the ratio of the run-off for a dry year to be 94 per cent of an average year's flow.

QUANTITY AVAILABLE.

The rivers whose discharge and run-off records are given below were chosen as typical Connecticut streams and fairly represent prevailing conditions. The Shetucket is a stream of the eastern highland, established on gneiss and schist. The Connecticut drains the sandstone lowland, and the Housatonic flows for a large part of its course above Gaylordsville in a limestone valley. The run-off record is compared with the rainfall record of the meteorological station nearest the point where the discharge is measured.

Discharge and run-off of Shetucket River at Willimantic April 4, 1904, to January 1, 1907.

Date.	Discharge (second-feet).			Run-off.			Rainfall at Storrs (inches).
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Per square mile (second-feet).	Depth (inches).	Relation to rainfall (per cent).	
1904.							
April 4	4,420	758	1,784	4.50	4.51	70.4	6.40
May	2,350	385	920	2.32	2.68	136.7	1.96
June	555	84	326	.823	.918	36.3	2.53
July	345	84	221	.558	.643	34.8	1.85
August	930	126	373	.942	1.09	18.1	6.00
September	2,930	66	428	1.08	1.20	25.5	4.71
October	930	207	396	1.00	1.15	52.5	2.19
November	990	150	381	.962	1.07	72.8	1.47
December 1-17, 28-31	3,755	126	831	2.10	1.64	67.7	2.42
1905.							
March	3,865	275	1,937	4.89	5.64	163.5	3.45
April	4,195	510	1,254	3.17	3.54	124.0	2.87
May	706	275	455	1.15	1.33	147.8	.90
June	1,560	66	565	1.43	1.60	35.3	4.53
November	555	207	364	.919	1.03	37.7	2.73
December	2,930	555	902	2.28	2.63	63.8	4.12

[a] Porter, Census for 1880, vol. 16, pt. 1.

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Discharge and run-off of Connecticut River at Hartford January 1, 1871, to January 1, 1886.

[Drainage area, 10,234 square miles.]

Date.	Discharge.			Run-off.			Rainfall (inches).
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Per square mile (second-feet).	Depth (inches).	Relation to rainfall (per cent).	
1871	87,460	5,520	17,433	1.70	21.11	56.2	37.70
1872	98,100	6,250	19,335	1.89	26.71	56.6	46.71
1873	109,800	5,390	23,061	2.25	30.62	69.9	43.85
1874	134,000	5,210	23,340	2.28	30.81	71.4	43.24
1875	90,100	5,700	18,114	1.77	23.95	55.6	43.07
1876	120,800	5,360	22,080	2.15	29.15	60.6	48.18
1877	128,200	5,700	16,683	1.63	22.09	51.5	42.92
1878	89,350	5,350	20,766	2.02	27.51	54.7	50.20
1879	116,400	5,550	18,852	1.84	24.91	52.6	47.24
1880	65,550	5,200	13,720	1.34	18.25	45.6	40.02
1881	74,000	5,250	18,026	1.76	23.88	51.0	46.93
1884	74,700	5,150	19,861	1.94	23.65	60.4	45.15
Period	134,000	5,150	19,157	1.87	25.10	57.0	44.53
1885.							
January	65,550	17,000	34,661	3.38	3.89	93.9	4.14
February	23,200	10,500	14,711	1.44	1.50	51.4	2.92
March	16,400	7,600	11,706	1.14	1.32	89.6	1.47
April	88,600	13,100	26,250	2.56	2.86	102.4	2.79
May	63,700	10,250	25,869	2.52	2.91	119.7	2.43
June	27,900	5,800	10,785	1.06	1.28	40.0	3.20
July	10,500	6,000	7,909	.77	.89	25.0	3.56
August	18,000	5,300	9,148	.89	1.03	12.8	8.06
September	13,100	6,000	8,105	.79	.88	47.8	1.84
October	21,350	6,750	10,084	.98	1.13	24.0	4.72
November	78,200	12,400	33,067	3.23	3.60	69.3	5.20
December	35,400	10,000	21,005	2.05	2.36	72.0	3.29
Year	88,600	5,300	17,775	1.73	23.65	54.3	43.62

Discharge and run-off of Housatonic River at Gaylordsville, 1901–1903 and 1906.

[Drainage area, 1,020 square miles.]

Date.	Discharge (second-feet).			Run-off.			Rainfall (inches).
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean.	Per square mile (second-feet).	Depth (inches).	Relation to rainfall (per cent).	
1901	14,300	303	2,216	.....	29.65	52.1	56.94
1902	31,000	525	2,920	2.861	38.62	62.9	61.43
1903	25,700	550	3,006	2.946	39.65	69.8	56.85
1906.							
January	3,170	938	1,800	1.76	2.03	84.2	2.41
February	4,630	788	1,630	1.60	1.67	65.5	2.55
March	10,000	1,130	2,910	2.85	3.29	81.0	4.06
April	8,930	2,460	4,780	4.69	5.23	142.5	3.67
May	5,060	1,090	2,110	2.07	2.39	42.6	5.61
June	2,370	928	1,630	1.60	1.78	31.8	5.60
July	2,120	421	984	.965	1.11	17.2	6.47
August	1,310	347	818	.802	.92	29.3	3.14
September	876	296	554	.543	.61	17.0	3.58
October	2,220	296	861	.844	.97	24.1	4.02
November	1,980	550	992	.973	1.09	80.1	1.36
December	1,440	686	958	.939	1.08	28.1	3.84
The year	10,000	296	1,670	1.64	22.17	47.9	46.31

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POPULATION AND INDUSTRIES.

The physiographic division of Connecticut into highland and lowland areas has been a controlling factor in determining the settlement and character of life of the people of the State. The bulk of the population at the present time is grouped in three areas:

First, the central lowland, containing the towns of New Haven, Hartford, Middletown, New Britain, Meriden, etc., in which 39 per cent of the entire population of the State is located. This region was first settled in 1637 and the population has increased gradually from that date. The favorable conditions of the lowland area are the fertile soil, which is readily tilled, and the ease of establishing lines of communication by wagon roads, canals, and railroads.

Second, on the shores of Long Island Sound, where are located Norwalk, Stamford, Bridgeport, New London, and other towns, which together have a population of 199,719, or 22 per cent of the total.

Third, in the highland valleys, where Waterbury, Winsted, Willimantic, and many smaller towns are located and where 26 per cent of the population reside. The original attractions of these places were the water power and ease of communication along valleys. Collinsville is typical of many small villages that have been built up about a factory whose location was determined by excellent water power.

The towns of the State outside of these three groups have attracted but 13 per cent of the population. The soil is thin but of fairly good quality. The roads have steep grades and are difficult to maintain. Railroad lines enter the highlands only along the wider valleys and are at an inconvenient distance from many of the towns. Parts of Union, Hartland, and North Stonington are 10 miles from any railroad, and many farms in Killingworth, Salem, Goshen, Ashford, Canterbury, and Ledyard are nearly as inaccessible. The result is that the population of certain hill towns has actually decreased. During the decade from 1890 to 1900 ten towns out of twenty-six in Litchfield County showed a decrease in population and ten out of thirteen towns in Tolland County suffered a net loss in population of 1,400. At the present time a new era seems to be dawning for rural Connecticut, partly as a result of improved methods of farming and of the introduction of the practice of scientific forestry, but more largely owing to the fact that the farms of the highlands are being purchased for summer homes and estates. For this purpose an abundant supply of good water is essential. In fact, the water resources of Connecticut form one of its chief commercial assets, and a knowledge of their character and occurrence has become a matter of great practical importance.

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CHAPTER II.

GEOLOGY.

OUTLINE OF GEOLOGIC HISTORY.

Very little is known of the early geologic history of Connecticut. It is probable that some of the gneisses and schists date from a time before any living forms existed upon the earth, but no fossils older than the Triassic have been found in the State, and it is therefore impossible to determine definitely to what age the pre-Triassic rocks belong. Their position in the time scale can, however, be determined approximately by comparing them with similar rocks in regions where their relations are known. This study of adjoining regions, taken in connection with the detailed study of the structure of the rocks themselves, indicates that the crystalline rocks of Connecticut have a long and complicated geologic history.

Pre-Cambrian rocks are represented in the State by the Becket gneiss, but no data are at hand to determine definitely the origin or age of this formation. Its component parts have been so completely altered by changes that have taken place since their deposition that all evidence of value for determining their original character has been destroyed. The character of the rocks overlying the Becket gneiss indicates that a sea extended over a large part of Connecticut during Cambro-Ordovician time and that the Stockbridge limestone and associated quartzites were deposited in that ancient water body. Such an accumulation of material implies the wearing down of land masses and suggests that lands of considerable elevation must have existed to the east of the present shore line.

The long interval between the close of the Ordovician and the beginning of the Mesozoic time has left no legible records of deposits that can be assigned to any definite geologic period. The great thickness of Devonian sediments to the west suggests a New England mountain range of considerable height which furnished material for the sedimentary strata.

One series of events, however, is abundantly attested, namely, that igneous intrusions occurred frequently in the interval between the Ordovician and the Triassic periods, resulting in the formation of numerous veins and dikes of quartz and granitic and basic rocks. The nature of these intrusive masses indicates that they have been

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brought to the surface by the removal of thousands of feet of sediments. The particular date of any of these igneous intrusions is unknown, but their effect is well shown, and it is not at all unlikely that part of the molten rock reached the surface and was represented by volcanic activity, all traces of which have disappeared.

The geologic records show also that at different times between the Ordovician and the Triassic there were important movements in the earth's crust which resulted in the metamorphism of all the existing rocks in the State. Just when these profound changes took place is unknown, but the rocks are believed to have been involved in the great earth movements which produced mountains at the close of the Archean, Ordovician, and Carboniferous periods.

That many changes took place in Connecticut during the time from the Ordovician to the close of the Carboniferous is shown beyond doubt by an examination of the highland areas.

These rocks are chiefly schists and gneisses, and accordingly have structures indicating that they have been profoundly changed from their original sedimentary or igneous character. The original component minerals have been rearranged, stretched, and drawn out in lines; new minerals have been produced; parts have been fused and recrystallized. Instead of horizontal layers or uniform igneous masses, we find twisted and broken rock with layers, bands, and ribbon structures in every conceivable position. This tangle of structure is further complicated by the presence of dikes, seams, and veins which have made their way into the rock at different stages of its history. In looking at this confused mass of rock which forms the Connecticut crystallines, it seems apparent that it has taken part in manifold changes which went on in the earth's crust for ages. This very complexity of structure is an important aid in determining the relative age of the rocks, for it is evident that in general the oldest rocks must have been affected by the greatest number of disturbances, and accordingly the rocks of one age may exhibit structures not found in those of succeeding ages. In the absence of other criteria the geologist is forced to fall back upon this. These rocks are like a parchment on which writing after writing has been placed at different times by different hands, without at any time completely erasing the previous inscriptions. Little wonder that we have difficulty in deciphering the original writing.

Such composition and structure as is described above can be produced only at very great depths in the earth (probably below 20,000 feet) where rocks are so deeply buried that, whatever the lateral stress, they will not adjust themselves by breaking, but by plastic deformation. It is therefore certain that, whatever the age of the crystallines, mountain ranges perhaps rivaling the Alps in height and ruggedness once occupied central Connecticut; and when we examine the rocks of Satans Kingdom, or the Quinnebaug Valley, or the Connecticut gorge below Middletown, or indeed any part of the area of crystalline rocks, we are studying the roots of lofty land masses composed of strata deposited during part or all of the Paleozoic era.[a]

The land at the close of the Carboniferous was probably marked by rugged topography—the hills and valleys making prominent scenic features. During Triassic time these elevations were removed and the material from the crumbling hills was built into the sandstones of central Connecticut.

[a] Rice, W. N., and Gregory, H. E., Manual of Connecticut geology, 1906, pp. 80, 81.

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The Triassic rocks are very much younger than any of the crystalline rocks exposed within the State; in fact, it is possible that no rocks were formed for a long period before the deposition of the lowest sandstone stratum. Where the ancient crystalline rocks and the Triassic rocks come into contact there is a marked unconformity, the sandstones lying upon the upturned edges of schists and gneisses of ancient time. The Triassic sandstone was deposited in water which was fresh or perhaps brackish, and a great deal of it was deposited in water which must have been shallow. The presence of animal life is indicated by the fossils found in the sandstones and shales. Skeletons of dinosaurs have been recovered and thousands of tracks of these strange animals have been found in the quarries of the Connecticut Valley. The shales at Saltonstall and Durham and elsewhere contain abundant remains of fish.

During the long time throughout which the Triassic sediments were being deposited volcanic eruptions formed widespread lava flows extending from New Haven to the northern line of the State. Outbursts of lava occurred at three different times and the fields of basalt which represent these flows are separated by considerable thicknesses of shale and sandstone, indicating periods of volcanic activity followed by long periods of quiet.

The sandstones and lavas of Connecticut were laid down in an approximately horizontal position, but at a date later than the Triassic the flat-lying beds were broken by a series of faults extending diagonally across the central lowlands. Displacement along these fault lines formed a series of giant blocks, composed of sandstone and trap, that were elevated on the west side and depressed on the east. The topographic result was a series of ridges with steep westward escarpment and gently sloping eastward face.

During Cretaceous time the entire region seems to have been worn down to a plain practically at sea level and sloping gently from northwest to southeast. Hills stood above the plain, but not to such an extent as to give the country a rugged topography. The southern part of the State at this time was probably covered with sediments deposited in a Cretaceous sea which extended to the latitude of Hartford. The result of this long period of erosion was to reduce the inequalities produced by the uplifting of the blocks of sandstone and lava and to lessen the contrast between highland and lowland areas.

Near the beginning of the Tertiary period the area now forming the State was uplifted and the streams which had been wandering across the Cretaceous plain were revived and began once more to cut their channels and to carry sediment to the sea. The result was to bring into relief all the harder and more resistant rock masses by removing the softer material. For example, in central Connecticut the areas of resistant trap stand above the sandstone plain as ridges

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whose length and shape had been previously determined by the direction of the fault lines. In the same way the softer Cretaceous strata along the coast seem to have been entirely removed and the less resistant limestone of the Housatonic Valley reduced to a narrow lowland. As a result of this long period of stream erosion during Tertiary time, the topography of the State acquired the larger general features of the present time.

During the Pleistocene ("Glacial") epoch the topography of Connecticut was again remodeled. The continental ice sheet which covered the northern part of America extended entirely across New England. Its thickness was great, the power urging it on was irresistible, and accordingly the landscape was molded in a characteristic manner. The loosened soil covering was removed from the rocks and the rocks themselves were reduced in height. They were grooved and scratched and polished by the pebbles embedded in the ice. A great quantity of material was removed permanently from the area and carried to Long Island. Although the larger features of the topography left by Tertiary erosion were little changed when the glacier disappeared, the details were greatly modified. Instead of the soil formed by the decomposition of the rocks, the glacier left two types of surface covering—glacial till, an unassorted and unstratified mass of rocks, bowlders, clays, and sands, differing widely in size and in composition, and stratified drift composed of layers of sands and gravel. The till came directly from the material carried by the glacier. The stratified drift was deposited by the waters from the melting ice mass. The distribution of this glacial material over the entire region modified the shape of hills, filled valleys, blocked drainage courses, rearranged stream channels, and left many depressions filled with bodies of water, so that although the main streams, like the Connecticut and the Housatonic, are now flowing in courses inherited from Tertiary time, yet the smaller streams owe their present arrangement very much to the changes produced by glaciation. Waterfalls, lakes, ponds, and swamps are also records of the Pleistocene ice invasion.

DESCRIPTIVE GEOLOGY.

INTRODUCTION.

The occurrence of ground water and the methods of its recovery are determined by the structure of the rocks, and therefore a knowledge of the character of the geologic formations of a region is essential to the well driller and to the well owner if he desires to attain satisfactory results at minimum expense. In Connecticut a well in mica schist may need to be of different construction from one in sandstone and will yield water differing in amount and in quality. Wells in till are usually shallow and of large diameter; those in

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stratified drift are particularly liable to contamination; those in sandstone and shale rarely yield water that is suitable for boilers. Thus in many ways the rock formations represented in the State determine the nature and value of the water supply.

In Connecticut three widely different rock groups must be taken into account by the well driller—the crystalline rocks forming the western and eastern highlands; the sandstones of the central lowland; and the deposits of sands, gravels, and clays which overlie all the rocks of the State. The sandstones, shales, and conglomerates are of Triassic age, as is shown by the numerous fossils contained in them. The gravels and other surficial deposits are of Pleistocene age. The crystalline rocks are of much greater antiquity, but owing to the absence of any definite marks of identification they will be referred to simply as pre-Triassic.

CRYSTALLINE ROCKS.

DISTRIBUTION AND CHARACTER.

With the exception of the area underlain by Triassic strata, the entire State of Connecticut is occupied by crystalline rocks of very great age. They are of two types, igneous and metamorphic, both widely different from the sediments of the valley lowlands.

Igneous rocks are those which have been molten and have solidified from cooling. They are accordingly composed of crystals, closely fitted and interlocking, instead of being made up of grains or fragments of material, as are sandstones. The many different textures shown by these igneous rocks were determined by their rate of cooling, and in accordance with this principle fine-grained granites and granite porphyry have been formed. Unchanged igneous rocks are rare in Connecticut outside of the traps of the Triassic region. They occur as veins, dikes, and small bosses, mostly of granite and related rocks. A few diabase dikes are distributed along the borders of the lowlands. The masses of unaltered igneous rock within the ancient crystalline areas are so small that it has not been found desirable to indicate them on the geologic map of the State.[a]

Metamorphic rock constitutes practically all of the crystalline areas in Connecticut. Rocks of this type have been profoundly changed from their original condition either as igneous or sedimentary. The change in some of these rocks is merely a hardening, as when shales are baked by the intrusion of a trap dike. But the metamorphic rocks of the State as a whole show much more complete alteration. Their mineralogical composition has been changed, their structure has been destroyed, and fossils which they may

[a] Bull. Connecticut Geol. and Nat. Hist. Survey No. 7, 1907.

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have formerly contained have been obliterated. The changes have been so great that the rocks bear little resemblance to their former appearance, and with some of them it is impossible to determine whether the original material was igneous or sedimentary.

The metamorphic rock masses existing within the State are crystallized limestone (marble), quartzite, phyllite, schist, and gneiss. Marble is a metamorphosed limestone, in which the grains of the original rock have been converted into crystals. Quartzite is a sandstone which has been made firm and compact by filling in the spaces between the sand grains with quartz. Phyllite is usually an advanced stage in the development of slate, which in turn is made of mud shales and related rocks. Schists and gneisses are so widespread within the State that they might be said to constitute the bed rock of the region. Twenty-three varieties of gneiss and eight varieties of schist are shown on the Connecticut geologic map. Schist is a term used to indicate the structure of the rock, not its composition, and represents an extreme stage of metamorphism in a rock which may have been originally igneous, sedimentary, or metamorphic. In schists so far has metamorphism proceeded that new minerals have been made, particularly mica, and a complete rearrangement of the mineral particles has taken place.

The value of the crystalline rocks as water carriers is determined by the facts that they are very dense, nonpermeable rocks, that structures of slatiness and schistosity are developed in them, that they are traversed by numerous joints in many directions, and that they are cut by large or small faults.

Schists are characterized by cleavage planes which enable the separation of the rock into irregular layers of small thickness. The structure which admits of the splitting of the rock in this manner is called schistosity and owes its origin to the parallel arrangement of micas and other flat minerals whereby separation takes place in one direction much more readily than in others. Schists always contain an abundance of mica, but they contain also other minerals in large amounts. Feldspar is invariably present, and a typical mica schist consists essentially of feldspar, mica, and quartz. The names hornblende schist, quartz schist, kyanite schist, etc., used in the following pages, indicate the prominence of certain minerals. Most of the Connecticut schists are believed to be the metamorphic equivalents of sedimentary rocks, the Hoosac ("Hartland") schist, for example, having previously been a series of sandstones, shales, and limestones, much like the present sediments of the Triassic belt.

Gneiss, like schist, is a term which refers only to the structure of a rock and implies the existence of a series of roughly parallel breaking planes along which the rock may be separated into slabs of various sizes. The development of schistosity is alike in gneisses and schists,

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but gneiss is more massive and is commonly the present equivalent of former igneous rocks. The production of gneiss from granite has taken place within the Connecticut area on a large scale. Granite masses have been stretched and squeezed so that instead of being of uniform texture and massive structure they are drawn out into sheets and definite layers. Practically all of the granite quarried within the State is granite gneiss, the gneissoid structure of which is an important factor in successful quarrying.

When schists or gneisses are exposed to the atmosphere the planes of schistosity often become definite cracks and open fissures into which water may descend and collect in amounts sufficient to supply wells or springs. It is this capacity to carry water which makes a detailed study of the structure of rocks a matter of practical importance.

JOINTS.

Rocks do not as a rule present an unbroken surface over any considerable area, but are traversed by cracks, which vary in size from those that are scarcely visible to those that are several inches in width. These cracks or "seams," as they are called by drillers and quarrymen, are technically joints. They are the results of mechanical action in rocks, which breaks them into more or less regular polygonal blocks separated by open spaces, and they are therefore of great importance when water-storage capacity is considered.

The most common type of joints includes those which are approximately vertical and cross each other at various angles, giving the rock surface the appearance of a rough screen or network. The prevalence of vertical jointing is shown by the fact that the inclination of about seventy-five measured joint planes in the Connecticut crystalline rocks was found to average 74°, forty of the joints being practically 90° from the horizontal. Another set of joints in the crystalline rocks runs more or less parallel to the surface of the rock. Some of these joints correspond to gneissoid and schistose structures, but many others represent entirely different planes of cleavage. In the gneissoid granites, as at Maromas and Glastonbury, these horizontal joints occur, but they vary considerably in their extent, number, spacing, and direction, as well as in width of opening, a variation which seems to depend primarily on the character of the rocks which they traverse. In the gneisses, particularly in gneissoid granites and granodiorites, the horizontal joints are very well developed and constitute the so-called "bedding" of the quarrymen. In the schists and the less massive gneisses horizontal jointing is poorly developed and in places even lacking. The character and number of vertical joints also depend on the nature of the rock. Certain rocks seem to be thoroughly shattered and broken by vertical joints into small

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wedges and blocks a fraction of an inch in diameter. Other rocks, like pegmatites, may extend for 25 to 50 feet without being marked by a prominent line of breaking. A good illustration of the difference of the jointing in two types of rock is seen in the Milford chlorite schist, where much fractured schistose and slaty varieties occur immediately in contact with fairly compact masses of altered diabase.

FAULTS.

Fractures along which more or less vertical movement has taken place are called faults and have been frequently observed in outcrops of crystalline rock. Many of the fractures extend to considerable depths and may appear on the surface as single lines or as zones of closely packed joints or of shattered rock. Much ground water may be stored in zones of faulted rock, and the open spaces afforded for the movement of water make fault lines of great value as channels for spring waters and supplies for wells.

TRIASSIC SANDSTONE AND TRAP.

DISTRIBUTION.

The Triassic rocks of the State occur in two areas—one extending from the Massachusetts line to Long Island Sound, with a breadth of about 20 miles at Thompsonville and narrowing at New Haven to the width of the harbor, the other underlying the towns of Southbury and Woodbury. Both of these areas are links in a broken chain of similar Triassic deposits which extends from North Carolina to Minas Basin, on the Bay of Fundy, a distance of 1,200 miles, and which covers altogether 10,000 square miles.

STRATIGRAPHY.

The relation between the Triassic strata and the ancient crystalline rocks is seen at Roaring Brook, in Southington, where sandstone lies unconformably upon the upturned edges of the Hoosac ("Hartland") schist. A general study of the Triassic areas of the Atlantic coast leads to the belief that the Connecticut areas are parts of a much larger expanse of Triassic rocks and that they owe their present existence to the fact that they have been dropped down as a result of faulting, and thus protected from the erosion which removed the adjoining areas exposed at higher levels.

The rock types existing in the Triassic area are two—the lavas (basalts) and intrusive sheets and dikes (diabase), rocks which are called popularly "trap;" and the sandstones, which range in texture from fine shales to extremely coarse conglomerates. The stratigraphic series in the Triassic of Connecticut consists of three lava

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flows with sedimentary strata below, between, and above them. Their relations are shown by the following table:

Stratigraphic succession in Triassic rocks of Connecticut.

	Feet.
Pre-Triassic metamorphic rocks.	
"Lower" sandstones	5,000–6,500
"Anterior"[a] (lower) trap	250
"Anterior" shales and shaly sandstones	300–1,000
"Main" (middle) trap	400–500
"Posterior" shales	1,200
"Posterior" (upper) trap	100–150
"Upper" sandstones	3,500

The "Lower" sandstone varies in texture from a fine-grained rock in the vicinity of Avon and Granby to a coarse conglomerate in which some of the pebbles exceed 2 feet in diameter. Where typically exposed in the quarries at Fair Haven the rock consists of fragments from the bordering crystalline rocks, including abundant crystals of feldspar, pebbles of quartz, fragments of porphyries, gneisses, and schists. Great variation is shown in the composition and structure of the beds, and abrupt changes in the character of the rock are observed at many places. In general the stratification is uneven and irregular, and the coarser and finer materials have rather the character of lenses than of uniform beds of wide extent.

The "Anterior" and "Posterior" sandstones contain a much larger proportion of shales than the "Lower" sandstones; in fact, shales and shaly sandstones are characteristic of these formations. In certain places, as east of Southington, an impure limestone occurs, and in a number of localities there is a slightly bituminous black shale. The stratigraphic position of the black shale is 50 to 100 feet above the "Anterior" trap sheet and at different levels between the "Main" and "Posterior" traps. The presence of these beds of shale has an important bearing on the problem of water supply. (See p. 109.) Fossil fish have been discovered in them at Saltonstall Lake, Rocky Hill, Durham, and other localities.

The "Upper" sandstones, consisting of sandstone and shale, with conglomerate locally developed, constitute the Triassic strata east of the central trap ridge. It is in these sandstones that the quarries at Portland and Long Meadow are located. In certain localities the "Upper" sandstone has characteristic features, but as a rule it is not a distinct formation. As stated by Davis,[b] "the Anterior, Posterior, and Upper sandstones and shales are seldom distin-

[a] Owing to the monoclinal faulting which has broken the Triassic strata into eastward-tilting blocks, the traveler going from west to east across the Connecticut lowland comes first to the lowest and oldest lava flow, next to the middle, and last to the uppermost. Hence the terms "Anterior," "Main," "Posterior," first used by Percival.

[b] Eighteenth Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 2, 1898, p. 139.

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guishable." It is also true that these three formations are practically indistinguishable from the "Lower" sandstones.

The three lava flows—"Anterior," "Main," and "Posterior"—are identical in chemical and mineralogical composition and are manifestly of closely similar origin. They are flows of basalt from unknown sources. The "Anterior" trap is broken into a series of small hills and short ridges at Saltonstall, Totoket Mountain, Lamentation Mountain, and other places, and disappears in the vicinity of "Newgate Prison," in East Granby. This trap sheet is comparatively dense, but is vesicular on the upper surface, and at Lamentation Mountain it contains an "ash bed" of fine lapilli, 30 feet thick. The "Main" trap sheet is made up of two or more flows with a combined thickness of 400 to 500 feet and constitutes the most prominent topographic feature of central Connecticut, forming the conspicuous ridges beginning at Saltonstall and extending through Meriden and Farmington and into Massachusetts, where they include Mount Tom and Mount Holyoke. The "Posterior" trap follows the "Main" trap sheet in general alignment and has similar characteristics, but at only a few places does it become an important topographic feature. An excellant view of the "Posterior" trap and the underlying sandstones may be obtained at the city quarry, Hartford, immediately adjoining the buildings of Trinity College.

In addition to the three lava flows there is a series of intrusive trap sheets and dikes composed of diabase. East and West rocks at New Haven, Gaylord Mountain, the ridges east of Canton, and the Barndoor Hills are examples.

JOINTS.

Both the sandstones and the traps of Connecticut are traversed by many prominent joints, which form reservoirs for ground water. Where exposed in quarries the sandstone is seen to be cut by numerous joints and open fissures, so that even in the most favorable localities it is impossible to quarry slabs of stone of very large size. The principal joints are nearly vertical and intersect each other at fairly wide angles, so that the finer-grained sandstone and the shale break in more or less uniform blocks. In the Hartford quarry the shale is traversed by two prominent sets of cracks, which enable the workmen to remove diamond-shaped blocks about a foot in diameter. The conglomerate, especially where it contains large quantities of quartz, exhibits much less uniformity in jointing than the finer-grained rocks. The blocks into which it breaks are wedges and rude polyhedrons of such a variety of form as to make it impossible to predict the location of definite division planes. Many of the joints in the sandstone are weathered to great depth and furnish ready passage for water. (See pp. 73–74, 111–113.)

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The trap rocks are of such uniform texture and of such fine grain that the jointing is exhibited on a very elaborate scale. Usually the joints are barely visible, but in a few places they are widely open and some of them have been filled with secondary material. The intrusive traps, and some of the lava flows as well, show a decided jointing at right angles to the plane of cooling, which gives a rudely columnar structure to the rock. In the New Haven region the columns are beautifully developed at Rabbit Rock, and some of the dikes in the Fair Haven tunnel show a regular and uniform system of joint cracks.

Perhaps the most convincing evidence of the abundance and influence of joints in trap is furnished by exposed cliffs below which is a talus slope of broken trap formed by joint blocks derived from the ledge above. Practically every high trap ridge in the State is flanked by such jumbled masses of fragments, the size and shape of which is determined by the direction and spacing of the cracks in the ledge. On the exposed edges of cliffs the joints furnish ample facilities for the free circulation and storage of water. In fact, where the bed rock is trap these cracks contain almost the only water supply within reach of wells.

FAULTS.

The sandstones and lavas of the Triassic area were laid down in a horizontal position. They no longer retain that attitude, however, but dip to the east at an average angle of 15° to 20°. In a few places the strata lie practically flat, and locally the dips are as high as 40°. These dips are due to the fact that the region is crossed by a series of fault lines which have cut the strata into blocks that are tilted to the east. Faults are joints or cracks in rock along which movement has taken place and which, accordingly, disturb the continuity of the rock much more profoundly than simple joints. In the lowland area twenty-five faults have been traced which extend for 5 miles or more, and one fault extending between Hanging Hills and Lamentation Mountain extends northeast and southwest for 40 miles. Innumerable smaller faults exist and may be observed in practically every outcrop of trap or sandstone. In places they occur so abundantly and are so closely placed that the rock appears to be shattered into small fragments. The amount of slipping which has occurred along these fault planes varies from a few inches, observed in quarries and railroad cuts, to several thousand feet in the great diagonal faults which have brought the "Lower" sandstones of Lamentation Mountain up to the level of the "Posterior" trap. The uplift in most of these faults is on the east side of the fault line, which accounts for the eastward dip of the strata and for the westward-facing cliffs. If the faults extended in the direction of the strike of the strata a series

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of parallel ridges would be exposed, marked by prominent cliffs of erosion on the west side. But the faults have traversed the formations obliquely, most of them from northeast to southwest, with the result that the erosion has produced a series of blocks which are not in alignment but are offset to one side or the other and separated by passes and gaps and notches.

The small Triassic area in the Pomperaug Valley presents features practically identical with those in the central lowland, and therefore requires no separate description.[a]

PLEISTOCENE DRIFT.

DISTRIBUTION AND GENERAL RELATIONS.

The glacial deposits of Connecticut form a mantle covering the bed rock practically everywhere. It is doubtful if bare rock is exposed over one-tenth of 1 per cent of the surface. The drift in thickness varies from a mere film to masses 300 feet in depth which have obliterated ancient stream courses. It is not quite so thick near the Sound and on the highlands as in the major valleys, and the rock ledges are confined for the most part to the summits of ridges and projecting cliffs now partly covered with talus. The disintegrated rock material formed throughout earlier geologic ages was removed by the glaciers, so that in general the rock surface where exposed is firm. Immediately overlying the solid rock, but with a marked unconformity between, is the glacial drift. The surface material as a rule has not originated from the rock on which it rests, and it may be entirely different in composition as well as in texture. Drift fragments of gneiss may be in immediate contact with shale, and bowlders of sandstone and trap may form the soil above ledges of mica schist. The fact that the bed rock is everywhere covered with glacial drift is one of the most important factors in the underground water problem of Connecticut, for the drift acts as a reservoir to feed water into the joints and cracks of the bed rock underneath. (See p. 142.)

CHARACTER OF MATERIAL.

Two types of glacial material are exhibited in the State—till and stratified drift. The till was made directly by the glacier and consists of deposits which are characteristic and quite unlike those made by water or wind. Glacial ice does not sort material, and the result is that till is composed of bowlders, sands, clay, and pebbles of all sizes, confusedly intermingled; and the same outcrop may show a heterogeneous lot of bowlders mixed with finely ground

[a] For a complete discussion of the faults of the Woodbury-Southbury region see Hobbs, W. H., Twenty-first Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 3, 1901, pp. 7-162.

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clay and sand. The bowlders may be securely bedded in rock flour in such a manner as to form "hardpan," which is scarcely less friable than artificial concrete and which furnishes little access to water; or the whole mass may be composed of bowlders and sand with large spaces between the fragments. Ordinarily the till is spread more or less uniformly over a region with a thickness depending on the character of the underlying topography, but here and there it is built into mounds (drumlins) which have been overridden by the ice, much as sand bars are formed in rivers.

Most of the rock fragments composing the till have not been rounded by water, and although much worn they are subangular and in many places polished and grooved and striated. The innumerable bowlders strewn over the surface of the State, built into fences, or used for foundations are parts of the till left by the retreating glacier.

Stratified drift consists of rounded fragments of sand and gravel deposited by water from the melting ice and differs little in appearance from deposits made by rivers or by the ocean. It differs from till in being stratified—that is, it is arranged in layers of fine and coarse material; and although the original fragments are the result of the grinding action of the ice sheet, the present position and structure of the drift are due to glacial waters. Stratified drift usually forms sand plains, and is confined chiefly to valleys and lower levels. Certain long winding ridges of stratified drift, indicating the channels of preglacial streams, are called eskers, and in some places the stratified drift takes the form of knobs, short ridges, and kettle holes, which are due to water action under conditions of confinement.

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CHAPTER III.

OCCURRENCE AND RECOVERY OF GROUND WATER.

CIRCULATION OF GROUND WATER.

THE WATER TABLE.

The term "ground water" is used in referring to water supplies obtained from wells or springs, in contrast with those derived from streams and lakes. The ground water represents that part of the rain or snow which penetrates into the soil, while the remainder of the precipitation is delivered directly to surface streams, evaporated, or absorbed by vegetation.

The clearest conception of the circulation of ground waters may be obtained by considering the material in which they occur to be of a uniform character. Every one is familiar with the fact that a hole dug in the sandy beach of the sea or of a lake will fill with water to the level of the sea or lake water, and in a sea-beach hole the level of the water will lower as the tide goes out. As holes or wells are dug at greater distances from the shore and at higher elevations the level of the water in the wells is found to rise above that of the surface of the lake, river, swamp, or other body of water with which the comparison is made. The height to which the water will rise at any point in the ground is known as the height of the water table at that point. The water table therefore represents the upper limit of a zone saturated with water, above which the ground is relatively free from water except immediately after rainfall. It is the surface of the sea of ground water, and it is also called the "ground-water level."

The water table has a surface rising and falling with the land surface, but with smaller differences of elevation. The water has the highest elevation on the hills and the lowest in the depressions, but stands farthest from the surface of the ground on the hills and rises nearest to the surface in the depressions; where these are deep enough it reaches the surface to form swamps, lakes, and streams. Where the ground is perfectly level and uniform in character the level of the water table is uniform, but where changes occur in the surface elevation the water flows from the higher to the lower points, and there is thus a constant movement of the ground water from the hills toward the valleys. With surface waters this movement is unrestrained and the water immediately runs off the hills; but the movement of ground waters is very slow, owing to the frictional resistance to the passage

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of the water through the small openings of the soil and rock. This slowness of movement makes possible the existence of shallow dug wells on hills, and it is also the cause of the constancy of flow of streams and springs throughout the year. If the ground water moved as freely as the surface water the streams would have exceedingly large flows immediately after heavy precipitation and would be dry in the intervals between rains.

MOVEMENT OF GROUND WATER.

The movement of ground water is due to the force of gravity, and accordingly tends to take a vertical direction. After a rainfall the water absorbed by the ground gradually percolates downward through the soil until it reaches the water table, where the motion of the sea of ground water instead of being vertical is mainly in the same direction as the slope of the surface. This slowly moving body of ground water finally comes to the surface. Some of it emerges as springs or as a succession of small seepages along the banks of streams, but a considerable proportion of it probably enters streams and lakes

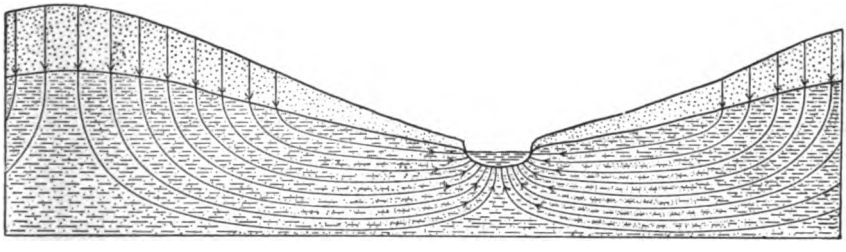

FIGURE 5.—Diagrammatic section illustrating seepage and growth of streams. Lines with arrows are lines of flows.

below the water level. The general directions of flow of ground water and the manner in which streams are supplied are indicated in figure 5.

Although the circulation of ground water is in a general way as stated above, it happens that natural conditions rarely afford a uniform material in which the level of the water table may be predicted at any point. The ground is nearly everywhere made up of materials varying in character and offering different degrees of resistance to the circulation of water. In Connecticut the ideal conditions are most nearly realized in some of the flat sandy plains of the Connecticut Valley.

POROSITY.

The circulation of water in any material is directly dependent on the amount and character of the openings in that material, and these openings may be in the form of small pores, of long flat joints or other fractures, or of irregular rounded and tubular openings varying in size.

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All rocks are composed of masses of separate particles or grains which do not touch each other at all points, small irregular openings occurring between the grains. This pore space, called "porosity," varies greatly in different materials and is largest in rocks that are composed of rounded grains laid down under water and least in rocks that have solidified from a molten condition. The porosity of a rock is expressed as a percentage of the entire volume. If 100 cubic feet of sandstone can absorb 20 cubic feet of water the rock is said to have a porosity of 20 per cent.

The following table gives the percentage of pore space and the amount of water absorbed per cubic foot by various sorts of rocks:

Porosity of different rocks.

Rock.	Percentage of pore space.	Water absorbed per cubic foot (quarts).
Sandstone	4.81	2–6
Do	28.28	
Limestone	.14	$\frac{1}{4}$–$1\frac{1}{4}$
Do	13.36	1–5
Marble	.184	
Do	3.578	
Granite	.969	$\frac{1}{100}$–$\frac{1}{4}$
Do		
Slate	.099	
Do	.304	
Chalk		4–8
Sand		8–10
Clay		10–12

These figures represent the ordinary limits of the porosity of the rocks and are derived from different sources.

PERMEABILITY.

The permeability of a rock is a measure of its ability to transmit water and is the most important factor in determining its value as a source of water supply. Permeability is dependent on the amount and character of porosity and on the existence of other openings, such as joints and other fractures and the small openings formed by escaping gas in certain lava flows.

In order that water may readily pass through a rock it is necessary that the openings be of appreciable size and have good connection with one another. In openings of small size the flow of water is strongly opposed by friction and by the attraction between the sides of the openings and the water, which in very small openings is sufficient to cause all the water to adhere to the sides as if glued. The effect of small size of openings is well shown by clays such as the brick clays of the Connecticut Valley, which may absorb water equal to 40 per cent of their weight, indicating a high porosity, but which allow water to pass through only with extreme slowness. In clays

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the constituent particles are so small and of such angular shape that the individual pore spaces are exceedingly minute, though in the aggregate of considerable volume. In sandstones the openings are so large as to allow relatively rapid flow. In general the size of the pores and consequently the permeability decrease with decrease in size of grain. Slichter [a] has made the following calculations, based on experimental work, of the velocity and amounts of ground water passing through materials of different grades.

Velocity of ground water in materials of different grades, pressure gradient 10 feet to the mile.

Material.	Diameter (millimeters).	Distance traveled per year.	
		Miles.	Feet.
Fine sand	0.2	0.010	52.8
Medium sand	.4	.041	216.0
Coarse sand	.8	.16	845.0
Fine gravel	2.0	1.02	5,386.0

Flow of ground water in materials of different grades through a bed of vertical cross section 200 by 1,000 feet, sloping 10 feet to the mile.

	Cubic feet per minute.
Fine sand	5.5
Medium sand	22
Coarse sand	87
Fine gravel	546

These determinations assume a uniform size of grain, a uniform porosity of 32 per cent, and a temperature of 50° F.

The law of flow through homogeneous porous materials is that the quantity of flow varies as the square of the size of the soil grain, other factors being constant. This law is based on the assumption that the grains are unconsolidated, but in all sandstones there is more or less cementing material which binds the grains together and necessarily decreases the amount of pore space. The more highly cemented the rock the less the porosity, although the cementation itself is an indication of former free circulation, as it is due to the deposition of mineral matter from water. Other factors influencing the amount of flow are variations in porosity and in temperature.[b] The flow at 70° F. is about double that at 32° F., owing to the fact that the viscosity of water decreases rapidly with rise in temperature.

The influence of joints and other fractures is of increasing importance as the porosity and size of the pore openings decrease, and in thoroughly crystalline rocks the only water circulation of consequence is through fractures. The rapidity of flow through joints is

[a] Slichter, C. S., Motions of underground waters: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 67, 1902, pp. 29, 30.

[b] Slichter, C. S., op. cit., p. 25.

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not known, but it is undoubtedly much greater than through the pores. Owing to the differences in the permeability of rocks water has decidedly different rates and amounts of flow in adjacent materials. The main flow of water is confined to the most permeable formation, other conditions being equal.

Most underground waters yielding supplies of economic importance are under more or less modified artesian conditions; that is, they follow definite inclined channels or zones, inclosed by material more impermeable to water than that carrying the water, and rise to some extent above the level where they are struck.

ARTESIAN CONDITIONS.

The term artesian was originally applied only to wells which yielded a flow of water rising above the surface of the ground, but it is now frequently used for any water that will rise above the point where it is struck, indicating that it is under pressure or head. The ideal conditions for artesian circulation are two inclined layers of imper-

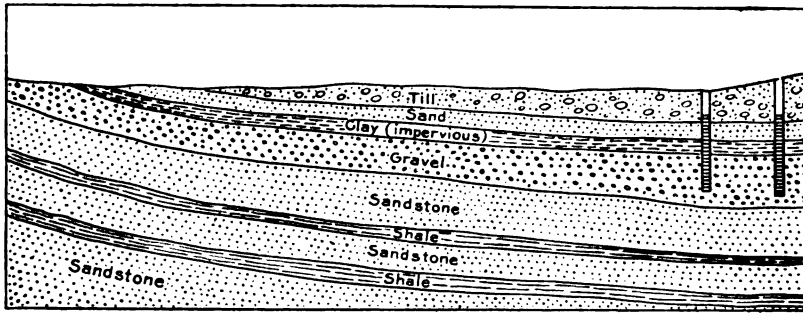

FIGURE 6.—Diagram illustrating artesian conditions where water does not rise to the surface.

vious material inclosing a layer of permeable material saturated with water for which there is no escape below the point where the water-bearing material is tapped. If the upper impervious layer is then penetrated in some manner, as by a drill hole, so that the saturated layer is entered at some point below the level at which the water naturally stands, the water will rise in the drill hole to a height determined by and nearly equal to the level at which the water stands in the water-bearing material. Figure 6 represents the conditions under which flowing wells may occur and under which the water will rise under artesian pressure to a certain level, but will not reach the surface.

The level to which water will rise in the well will always be somewhat lower than that of the water table in the permeable material, owing to the loss of head due to friction during the passage of the water to the well, and this difference in level will increase with increase of distance from the source of supply.

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The conditions on which artesian flow depends may be summarized as follows:

1. A porous and permeable stratum capable of absorbing and transmitting large quantities of water. In certain localities planes of fracture may transmit the water rather than a porous stratum.

2. Relatively impervious materials above and below, preventing the escape of water from the porous stratum. Such conditions might be realized by a bed of sandstone between two beds of shale or by a layer of sand resting on massive granite and overlain by clay.

3. An exposure of the porous stratum where it may absorb water supplied either by direct precipitation or by percolation of waters falling on porous material above.

4. An inclination of the water-bearing stratum so that gravity may force the water down and produce an artesian head. This inclination may be due to the manner of original deposition, but is ordinarily caused by a displacement of the strata after deposition.

5. A lack of easy escape for the water at lower points than that where the porous material is penetrated, as the artesian head would be lost if the water had such escape.

6. A sufficient precipitation and absorption to keep the porous material saturated and maintain the artesian head.

Although these conditions are partly realized at many places in Connecticut, they are generally modified by many factors. In the Connecticut Valley the relatively porous sandstone has a marked dip to the east, and it is not uncommon to find a stratum of sandstone confined between two layers of shale. However, these rocks are intersected by so large a number of fractures that the water which can not pass through the fine pores of the shale leaks through the jointed material, destroying the artesian head. At many places in Connecticut a number of springs occur in a relatively straight line, indicating the existence of a fracture plane along which waters are escaping from confinement below. The artesian waters, instead of coming to the surface through artificial wells, are escaping through the openings furnished by nature. Fuller [a] has shown that artesian conditions may occur in such uniform materials as sand, owing to the overlapping of the elongated sand grains.

The fact that the ground water is in a state of continual motion, as shown by various experimental methods, implies that there must be some escape for the water at lower levels than that where it enters. Such natural escape may occur in a variety of ways. In a material of uniform nature, as sand, the surfaces of streams, lakes, and swamps represent the level of ground water at that point and the escape is due to slow seepage. Bodies of water fed in such a way are extremely

[a] Fuller, M. L., Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 145, 1905, p. 41.

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variable, increasing and decreasing in amount as the water table rises and falls, owing to varying weather conditions. The way in which such streams are fed is indicated in figure 5.

SPRINGS.

A large amount of the escaping ground water emerges at the surface in the form of springs that are usually rather constant in the

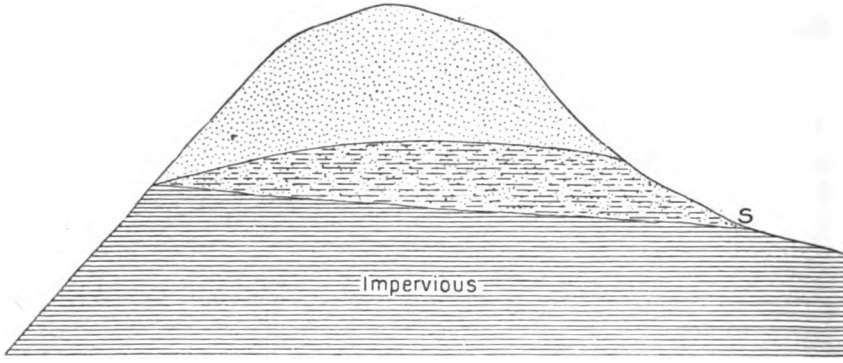

FIGURE 7.—Diagram showing formation of a spring at the outcrop of an inclined impervious stratum. S, Spring.

amount of flow throughout the year. Such springs may represent an escape of artesian waters through fissures, as stated on page 49. Commonly they owe their existence to the presence of a stratum of pervious material overlying an impervious layer (fig. 7). The water penetrating the pervious layer is prevented from moving downward through the impervious layer, whose slope it follows until it finally emerges at the surface at the contact of the two layers.

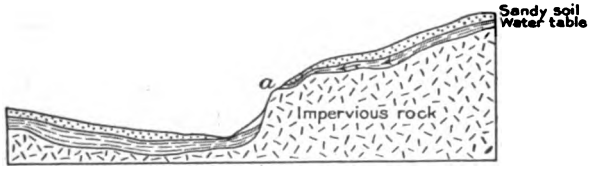

FIGURE 8.—Diagram illustrating manner in which spring may form at contact of soil covering and impervious rock below, when soil is removed by erosion. *a*, Point of emergence of the spring.

Figure 8 represents a type of spring in which the top of a hill is capped by a layer of sandy soil resting on impervious rock. The ground water follows the rock surface until some opportunity is afforded for escape, when the water will emerge as a spring.

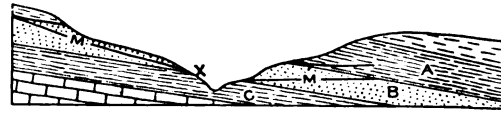

FIGURE 9.—Diagram illustrating manner of formation of spring at contact of pervious formation and impervious formation when dissected. A, C, Impervious shale beds; B, porous water-bearing sandstone; M, top of saturated zone; X, point of emergence of spring.

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Figure 9 represents the conditions where erosion has cut through the porous stratum and into the impervious layer, affording an easy escape for the ground waters. These diagrams represent two of the numerous ways in which springs may occur. Springs are usually seen issuing as streams rather than as a continuous seepage, both because the stream springs are more conspicuous and because if there is any considerable opening such as a joint crack the water will tend to concentrate in this open channel where the frictional resistance is least.

AMOUNT OF GROUND WATER.

It must be clearly understood that the amount of ground water is limited, as it depends on the amount of precipitation which is absorbed by the ground. The amount that escapes in the form of springs, though also dependent on the amount of precipitation,

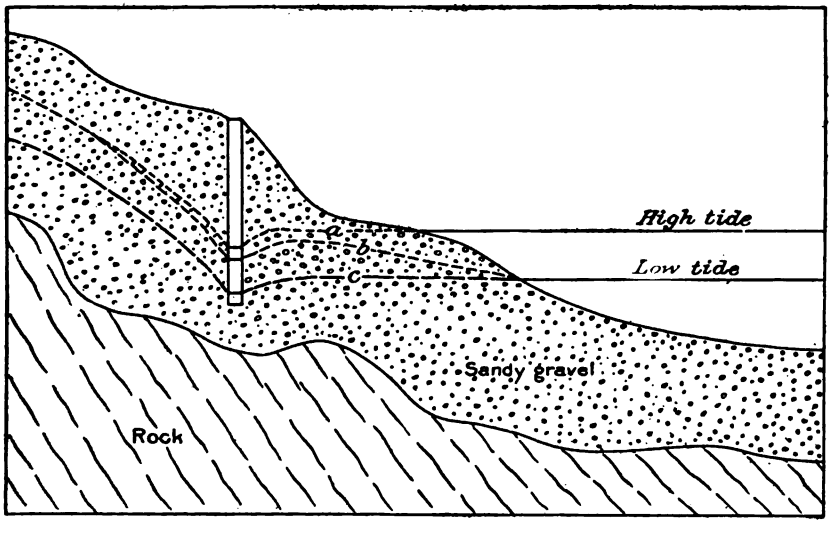

FIGURE 10.—Diagram illustrating effect of tides on water table. *a*, Normal water table at high tide; *b*, normal water table at low tide; *c*, depressed water table during a dry season.

varies relatively less than the precipitation. The amount of precipitation, however, is variable, a dry season being marked by a lowering of the water table and a wet season causing a corresponding rise. The effect of these changes is always marked in shallow dug wells of the ordinary type, the water rising nearly to the top in winter and spring, whereas the same wells will be nearly or quite dry during the latter part of the summer. Springs also are affected to a certain extent by such seasonal changes, but the effect is relatively small as compared with wells. Variations in the level of the water table are also caused by barometric fluctuations, but though these variations may be sufficient to affect the amount of flow of

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springs, as shown by F. H. King,[a] they cause no permanent effect on the water supply. In wells near the coast fluctuations of the water table with the rise and fall of the tide are common, as the height of the sea water at high tide gives a slope to the water table differing from the slope at low tide. This is shown in figure 10.

Neighboring wells will usually affect one another, as water can ordinarily be pumped from the wells faster than it can be supplied by the water-bearing material, and the water table is therefore depressed for a varying distance around the wells, so that heavy pumping of one well will cause the lowering of the water level in an adjacent well deriving its supply from the same source. It is not uncommon for an artesian well which had previously given a good flow to lose its flow entirely on the sinking of another well which happened to give an easier escape for the underground waters. As a rule the flow of artesian wells decreases with the lapse of time and the head gradually lowers, indicating that the well is exhausting the supply faster than it is renewed by precipitation, or, in other words, that the water table in the water-bearing material is undergoing continuous depression.

TEMPERATURE OF GROUND WATER.

When the water enters the ground it has a temperature corresponding to that of the atmosphere, but as it percolates downward it is affected by the temperature of the ground and within a very short distance from the surface acquires the temperature of the material through which it is passing. In any region there is a certain depth at which the temperature is constant throughout the year and is practically the same as the mean annual temperature of the region. In Connecticut this depth is 50 to 60 feet, and the mean annual air temperature is 47°, so that waters at about 50 feet below the surface will have this temperature. Most of the Connecticut well waters come from much shallower depths, and consequently have temperatures above or below this average, depending on the season of the year.

Below the level of constant temperature there is a fairly uniform increase of temperature with increase of depth, amounting to about 1° F. for every 60 feet of depth. It is a common belief that the deeper the well the colder will be the water, but it will be readily seen that on this basis beyond a depth of 50 feet the deeper the well the warmer will be the water. This statement corresponds to the facts shown by the deep drilled wells of Connecticut, although in such waters there is a small change of temperature during the rise of the water to the surface.

[a] Movements of underground water: Nineteenth Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 2, 1899, pp. 75–77.

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CONTAMINATION.

From what has been stated above, it is evident that ground water does not exist in pools or cavities in the rock and is not stationary. It has a movement in a definite direction, which can be determined for any given place. A velocity as high as 100 feet in twenty-four hours has been measured, but the common rates, even in sand, are only from 2 to 50 feet a day. (See p. 47.) The fact of the movement is undisputed and has an important bearing on health, for disease germs may be carried by water wherever it travels. No kind of rock or soil is proof against the transmission of ground water containing pollution. Fuller [a] has shown that water may traverse several miles of crystalline rock and may carry contamination through that distance. In a settled community too much emphasis can not be placed on the necessity of locating wells in positions where they are not liable to infection. The only safe way is to treat ground water as if it were a surface stream. No one would use water from a river a short distance below points of contamination, and no one should use water from wells where the downward slope of a ground-water table is such that the water might carry infected material. (See pp. 171–172.)

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[a] Fuller, M. L., Bull. Geol. Soc. America, vol. 16, 1905, p. 372.

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CHAPTER IV.

GROUND WATER IN THE CRYSTALLINE ROCKS OF CONNECTICUT.

By E. E. Ellis.

INTRODUCTION.

The laws governing the occurrence of ground water in unconsolidated material and in porous sedimentary formations are now generally understood, but little has been written concerning the sources of supply for wells in the so-called crystalline rocks. The term "crystalline rocks" is used for those rocks whose component grains have crystallized into their present relative positions, in contrast with the sedimentary rocks, which were laid down under water and generally consist of fragments of older rocks mechanically arranged. Under the head of crystalline rocks two main types may be distinguished—(1) igneous rocks, such as granite, diabase, gabbro, etc., which were once in a molten condition and which crystallized and hardened on cooling; (2) metamorphic rocks, such as schists and gneisses, which were originally either sedimentary or igneous but have been altered by metamorphic processes to their present form.

Connecticut offers an exceptionally good field for an investigation of ground water in the crystalline rocks, as more than two-thirds of the State is underlain by rocks of this type (see fig. 11) and a large number of wells have been drilled in this area.

LITERATURE.

It seems necessary to dwell on the theoretical principles involved in the occurrence of ground water in crystalline rocks more largely in this paper than is customary in a report on underground water resources, because of the scarcity of previous information on these points. Accordingly a summary of the most important articles which have been written on such occurrences is here given. Many of these articles are contained in the discussions of the relation of circulating waters to ore deposits and to metamorphic changes. The principles involved, however, have been deduced for water circulation in general, both in rocks permeable because of their porosity and in rocks giving opportunity for circulation only through fracture planes; the latter type corresponds to the crystalline rocks under discussion. The theory as stated by Van Hise[a] considers that there

[a] Van Hise, C. R., A treatise on metamorphism: Mon. U. S. Geol. Survey, vol. 47, 1904.

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are two general zones of water circulation—a zone below the level of ground water, where all openings in the rocks are filled with water, and a zone above the level of ground water, where the openings are but partly filled. He considers the extreme possible depth of circulating waters to be about 10,000 meters, which is the limit at which open fractures may exist. The circulating waters are considered to enter the earth's crust at many points and as, owing to the force of gravity, they work downward, they tend to seek larger and larger channels, which offer less resistance to their flow, and finally to converge in some large channel and emerge at the surface at some point lower than that where they entered. Gravity is considered to be the primal force in producing this circulation. The chief objection to this theory has been the assumption of a saturated zone below a certain level. Similar theories have been less fully brought out by Daubrée, and by De Lapparent.

Certain general statements regarding the occurrence of water in crystalline rocks and the procuring of water from joint planes are given by M. L. Fuller.[a]

In a paper on the water resources of a crystalline area in New Hampshire and Maine, George Otis Smith[b] has discussed the manner of occurrence of water in these rocks. He considers that the movement of the water is confined to stratification partings, joint openings, and less continuous passages, the main circulation being along master joints which are nearly horizontal. The circulation is slow owing to the constricted nature of the openings, and the water supplying wells is contributed from distant areas and is confined largely to trunk channels. The occurrence of certain flowing wells is attributed to constriction and cementation in the upper portions of the fractures, giving opportunity for hydrostatic pressure.

J. A. Holmes[c] describes the occurrence of water supplies from the contact of fresh rock and the decomposed portion above in the crystalline rocks of North Carolina, but considers the undecomposed rock to be an uncertain source of supply.

The only published discussion of well supply in the crystalline areas of Connecticut is by H. E. Gregory,[d] who gives certain statistics regarding the wells in this area.

A number of records of wells drilled in crystalline rocks in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York, and Connecticut are given in the water reports of the New Jersey Geological Survey.

A. Daubrée,[e] in a treatise on subterranean waters, has paid particular attention to various types of fractures that offer passage to

[a] Occurrence of underground waters: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 114, 1905, pp. 28-29, 39.

[b] Water resources of the Portsmouth-York region, New Hampshire and Maine: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 145, 1905, pp. 120-128.

[c] Notes on the underground supplies of potable waters in the south Atlantic Piedmont plateau: Trans. Am. Inst. Min. Eng., vol. 25, 1896, pp. 936-947.

[d] Underground waters of Connecticut: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 114, 1904, pp. 78, 79.

[e] Les eaux souterraines, 1887, pp. 150-157, 271-277.

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bles granite but contains a much larger proportion of the black mica (biotite). At many places in this area it is highly schistose and may be split much more readily in one plane than in others.

Gneiss.—The gneiss is a more variable rock than the granite, presenting very different characteristics even in adjacent areas and lacking the uniformity of texture of the granite. It may be distinguished by its banded or streaked appearance. It contains a large amount of feldspar and usually a considerable proportion of black mica or black amphibole, which, being present in greater amounts along certain lines than along others, gives the rock an appearance of alternating darker and lighter streaks. In some of the rock these streaks are developed into even bands from one-half inch to 3 feet in width, which continue for several hundred feet with variations of less than an inch in thickness. The most conspicuous area of gneiss is in the southeastern and eastern part of the State. Another large area consisting mainly of schist injected by granitic material occurs in the vicinity of Waterbury.

Schist.—Although schist usually contains a large amount of quartz and feldspar its most conspicuous constituent is mica, which on casual inspection appears to constitute the bulk of the rock. A careful examination will show that these mineral particles are much longer than they are wide and thick and that their longer axes lie in the same direction. This is the direction of schistosity or rock cleavage, and the rock splits along this plane much more readily than in any other direction. Wherever there is an exposure of schist the tendency of the rock to split along the plane of schistosity together with the high angles at which these planes usually stand gives a jagged and serrated appearance to the rock surface. The parting plane is usually rather uneven, but in certain types of schist it is very smooth and shows a shining surface in the sunlight. Schist of this type called phyllite, is too fine grained to distinguish the separate constituent particles and closely resembles slate, being in fact, intermediate between a slate and a schist. Certain of the chloritic schists of Connecticut assume a similar aspect. Though nearly all the Connecticut crystalline rocks are characterized by the presence of garnet, this mineral reaches its largest and best development in the schists.

The greatest development of the schists is beyond the western border of the Triassic area and in the area running from Middletown to the northeast corner of the State.

Quartzite schist.—There are several areas of an extremely quartzose schist in the northeastern and northwestern portions of the State. This rock is composed entirely of quartz grains and is supposed to represent a quartzite completely metamorphosed to a schist. In the western part of the State recementation appears to have taken place,

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resulting in an extremely indurated rock more nearly resembling a true quartzite.

Pegmatite.—Traversing many of these rocks are dikes and irregular masses of pegmatite, which are white or very light in color and consist in great part of large crystals of white or pink feldspar with quartz and in places bunches of broad-leaved mica. This rock is usually called "feldspar" by drillers and quarrymen.

Trap rock.—The trap rock is familiar to nearly everyone, and is easily distinguished by its dark color and fine-grained and compact texture. It occurs in the crystallized rocks as intrusive masses or dikes of material which has been thrust into older rocks. The external appearance of these dikes in the highland areas is closely similar to that of the traps of the lowland, and in composition the two rocks are identical.

Limestone.—The limestone is softer than any of the other rocks considered; it may be readily scratched by a knife and will usually effervesce when acid is applied. It is ordinarily white or gray in color, and is the only rock considered in the present discussion which may be definitely classed as of sedimentary origin without careful study. It is usually dolomitic—that is, it contains a considerable proportion of magnesium carbonate and in many places has been metamorphosed to a genuine marble.

DRILLING PRODUCTS.

The marked characteristics of these rocks give equally characteristic products in drilling. In many places the drill will yield fragments that are large enough to show the general texture of the rocks. In others the drillings will all be in the form of rock dust. In general the granite drillings are even grained, with a large proportion of the white or pink minerals, quartz and feldspar, and the same character and color of material will be maintained for a number of feet. Gneiss gives a somewhat similar product but as a rule has a larger proportion of biotite (black mica) and the character of the drillings changes rapidly, usually every few inches. Schist is generally softer and more readily drilled than either granite or gneiss, and the drillings contain a conspicuous amount of mica which occurs in larger particles than the other minerals. As in granite, the drillings maintain a fairly uniform appearance. The phyllite is usually a hard rock to drill, owing to its fineness of grain and the nearly vertical position of its cleavage at many places. Trap rock is considered the most difficult rock to drill, because of its hardness; it is readily distinguished from the other types. Limestone drillings are ordinarily white, and may be tested by adding acid or strong vinegar, which will produce an effervescence, owing to the escape of carbon dioxide.

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DRIFT.

Although in some places, particularly in the southern part of the State, the rocks above described are exposed at the surface, they are in large part covered with glacial deposits—till and stratified drift. The till occurs as a relatively thin layer over the rock surface both in valleys and on hills, and the valleys are filled with heavy deposits of stratified sand, gravel, and clay deposits resting upon the till and tending to form a flat valley floor. At many places the till has been eroded and the stratified deposits rest directly on the rock. The till deposits on the hills average about 15 feet in thickness, varying where present up to 60 feet or more; the valley deposits at many places are over 100 feet thick and average about 36 feet, although varying within very short distances owing to the irregularities of the underlying rock surface. These averages are made from the well records in the crystalline areas.

In general, therefore, the hills have a configuration corresponding rather closely to that of the underlying rock surface, the minor irregularities of which are masked by the overlying drift. On the other hand, the valley bottoms are flat and a decidedly different topography would be shown if the sand and gravel deposits were removed. The general relation of the glacial deposits to the underlying rock and to each other are indicated in figure 23.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING OCCURRENCE OF WATER IN CRYSTALLINE ROCKS.

INTRODUCTION.

The occurrence of water in crystalline rocks is necessarily unlike that in most kinds of water-bearing sedimentary rocks, owing to the great difference of texture in the two types. In unmetamorphosed sedimentary rocks the pore space is usually large, running above 20 per cent of the total volume in many sandstones and locally above 40 per cent. This means that such rocks will absorb an amount of water equal to one-fifth or even two-fifths of their entire volume. In the crystalline rocks there is little pore space between the constituent grains, which have crystallized into their present relative positions and therefore closely interlock with one another. Few of the granites have a porosity exceeding 1 per cent, and the average is 0.5 per cent or lower.[a] In gneissoid granites the proportion of pore space is about the same, and in slates it is less, averaging 0.45 per cent or lower. Although in many limestones the porosity runs above 10 per cent, their metamorphosed equivalents—the marbles—have a porosity about equal to that of granite.

[a] Buckley, E. R., Building and ornamental stones of Wisconsin: Bull. Wisconsin Geol. Survey No. 4, 1898, p. 374.

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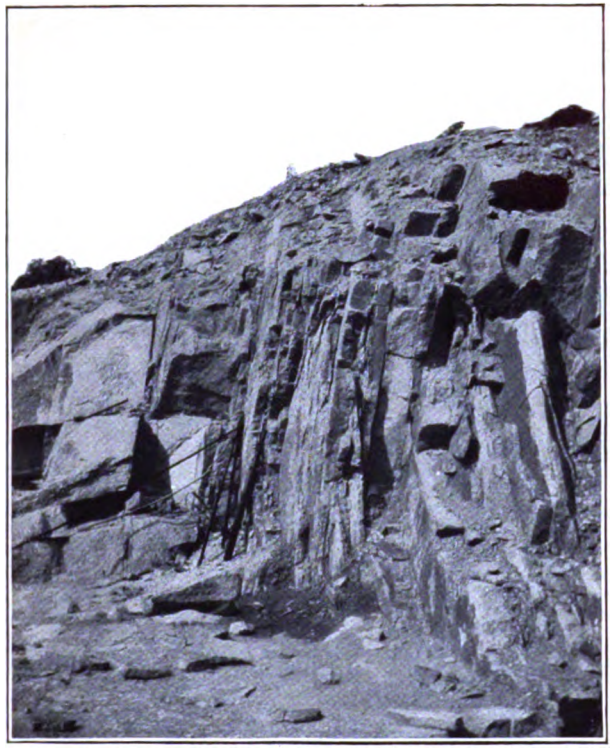

A. VERTICAL JOINTS IN GRANITE.

B. HORIZONTAL JOINTS IN GRANITE.

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In such rocks as these, which absorb less than 0.5 per cent of their volume of water and contain less than 1 per cent of uniformly distributed pore space, the pores are mainly of subcapillary size and, though admitting water, allow little and exceedingly slow transmission. In many of the sedimentary rocks, on the other hand, the openings between the grains are of capillary or supercapillary size and give ready transmission to circulating waters. Therefore in the crystalline rocks the only circulation of water which has sufficient rapidity of movement to be of value as a source of well supply must be through joints and fractures developed subsequent to the crystallization. (See fig. 12.)

JOINTS.

A joint in rocks may be defined as an opening or fracture of great length and depth as compared with its width. Joints are produced by mechanical action which causes the rock to break into more or less regular blocks after it has hardened. They are usually attributed to some dynamic force that brings about movements in the earth's crust. They are ordinarily called seams or cracks by drillers.

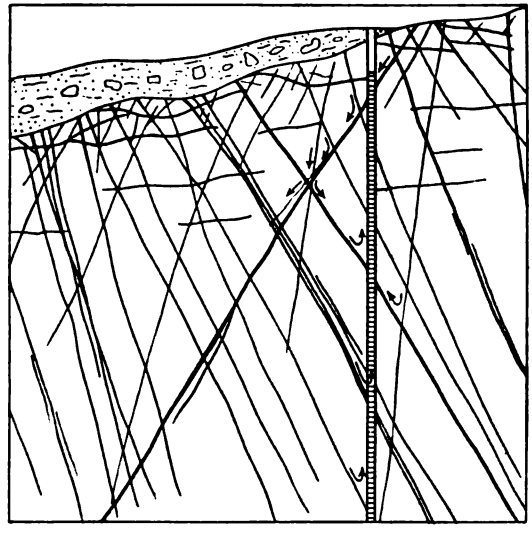

FIGURE 12.—Diagram illustrating the manner in which a well obtains water by cutting joints.

Vertical joints.—The most common type of joints comprises those in planes approximating a vertical position. (See Pl. I, *A*.) Though there are many joints within 2° or 3° of verticality, the greater number deviate considerably from this position. A large number of measurements were made on the inclination of this type of joint in the crystalline areas of Connecticut, the average inclination of a series at any exposure being taken rather than a number of measurements on separate joints at the same exposure. The mean inclination, as shown by 75 observations, was 74° from the horizontal. In only four observations did the inclination run below 40°, in 14 it was between 40° and 70°, in 17 between 70° and 80°, and in 40 between 80° and 90°. It is evident that in the Connecticut crystalline rocks the main jointing is between 70° and 90°. In several of the places where lower inclinations were observed the jointing was parallel to some structure plane in the rock.

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Horizontal joints.—In many of the rocks there is another set of joints which are very distinct from those of the vertical type, both in their degree of inclination and in their general nature. This set occupies an approximately horizontal position, in few places pitching more than 20°, and as a rule much less than this. (See Pl. I, *B*.) In general this joint structure follows the surface configuration of the rock, but here and there it pitches at a low angle in an opposite direction to the slope of the hillside. In the most extreme cases of deviation from a horizontal position this jointing was found to be approximately parallel to planes of schistosity in the rock. This is well shown in the lower of the two gneissoid granite quarries near Maromas.

In the further discussion of jointing, the names vertical jointing and horizontal jointing will be used for these two main types.

Relation of rock type to jointing.—Both vertical and horizontal jointing are present in all the crystalline rocks, but occur in greatly varying degrees of development in the differing types. The horizontal joints are typically developed in the massive granites, where they are commonly very regular. They form the most striking feature of quarries in such rocks and constitute the plane of separation called "bedding" by the quarry men. In the gneissoid granites these joints are developed equally well, but their direction is determined by the gneissoid structure in some places where that lies at a low angle to the horizontal.

In the typical gneisses the joints are irregular and uncertain and occur only near the surface; in the schists they are usually lacking, although here and there irregular and discontinuous fractures may be seen running in a nearly horizontal plane. Where such horizontal fractures occur in schists they are usually near the surface and very open.

The vertical jointing is not confined to any particular rock type, but is developed throughout all consolidated formations, both sedimentary and igneous. The degree and nature of the development, however, vary not only with varying rock types, but also to a great extent in rocks of the same type in different localities. This difference of development at the contact of rocks of two distinct types may consist of a mere tightening or closing of the joint on passing into the second rock, or of a difference in the number of the joints in the two rocks, indicating that some joints have stopped at the contact lines. Numerous instances of the former difference have been noted in the studies of ore bodies, and a good example on a small scale, typifying both differences, may be seen in the railroad cut just west of the station at West Haven, Conn. Here lenses and streaks of extremely schistose and slaty rock occur with similar layers of compact diabase several feet in thickness. The diabase is completely traversed by

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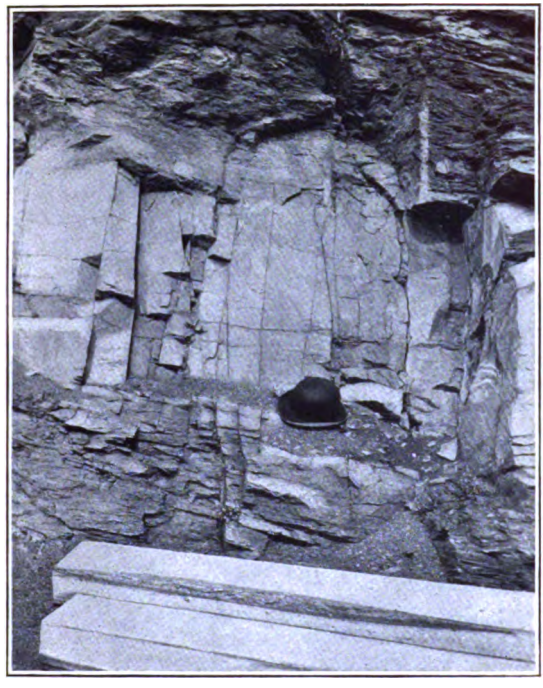

A. JOINTS IN SCHIST AND METAMORPHOSED DIABASE.

B. JOINTED AND FISSILE SCHIST.

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joints and seams, some of which stop abruptly at the contact with the schistose rock, while those which continue across the schist are relatively tight. A similar occurrence on a larger scale may be seen on the north bank of Housatonic River, 3 miles above Derby, where a schist lies above a heavy pegmatite. It is impossible with present evidence to say what will be the rule in this respect at the contact of a schist and a granitoid rock, but it seems probable that in most such places the joints will become tighter and less numerous in passing from a granitoid to a schistose rock. (See Pl. II, *A*, *B*.)

Joint direction.—Any individual joint maintains a fairly constant direction with a few small curves, and here and there the same directions of prominent jointing will remain fairly constant over a considerable area, as shown by the observations of Hobbs[a] in the Pomperaug Valley, where he found four major directions of jointing. Where there is a particularly well-developed joint set the series may maintain the same general direction for long distances.

In a series of observations throughout the crystalline areas of the State it was found by the writer that a much larger proportion of joint systems ran in a northwest–southeast direction than in one northeast and southwest. However, for particular localities the direction of jointing can be determined only by local observations.

Structure planes.—Of secondary importance to the joints as regards water supply is the presence of structure planes, such as schistosity and gneissoid banding in the rocks. In rocks exhibiting these features there has been more or less fracturing parallel to the structure planes, which have an average inclination much lower than the joints. The planes of schistosity dip at all angles, but for any single formation there is usually some dip which is more constant than others. Observations on these formational dips in Connecticut show them to be quite as commonly below 45° from the horizontal as above that angle, whereas, as previously shown, most of the joints, exclusive of the horizontal joints, have greater dips than 75°.

The fracturing parallel to the schistosity may consist of rather widely spaced and relatively open fractures or of small discontinuous breaks an inch or less apart, producing a structure known as fissility. Whatever the nature of these fractures, they will average a lower inclination than joints, although in some rocks, as in the chlorite schist and phyllite west of New Haven, they are nearly vertical.

Variation in jointing.—In the schists and similar rocks, with a marked schistose structure, such as the schistose granodiorite along the coast east of Greenwich, there is usually one direction or system of jointing that is more prominent than any other. This main system

[a] Hobbs, W. H., The Newark system of the Pomperaug Valley, Connecticut: Twenty-first Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 3, 1901, pp. 7-162.

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is, as a rule, accompanied by a wider spaced and less well developed series of joints intersecting the main series at high angles. In the schistose granodiorite the jointing is well developed, rather closely spaced, and very uniform in direction. In the schists the joints maintain a fairly uniform trend, but are commonly very tight, and in much of the rock die out within short distances. In most exposures one or two distinct series of joints can be distinguished, and many small irregular fractures connecting the main joints occur near the surface, but disappear at relatively shallow depths.

In the granitoid rocks the vertical joints are generally more open and continuous than those in the schistose rocks, but usually lack their characteristic regularity of arrangement in series and are ordinarily more widely spaced. Although in many of these rocks there is one set of joints with a general parallel direction, even in the joints which may be classed in the same series there may be a variation of 10° to 20° in direction, and other vertical joints may intersect these with no regularity of arrangement with reference to each other. This is the usual occurrence of jointing in the Connecticut crystalline rocks of this class, but in certain places two, three, or even four distinct sets of joints may be distinguished.

The limestones of the State are even more irregularly fractured than the granites and the fracturing is usually so close as to prevent the use of the rock as building stone. Joints cut these rocks at all angles, and the general shattering has produced more open space than in any other type of rock which might be classed as crystalline.

No general conclusions on the occurrence of vertical joints in the crystalline areas of Connecticut will hold for every portion, as there is great variation in their occurrence within short distances, even in the same formation. On the other hand, the horizontal joints have a very uniform mode of occurrence for all the granitoid rocks. They are approximately parallel to the rock surface, except where influenced by local factors such as structure planes, and are spaced at fairly uniform distances from one another. They are everywhere curved or wavy and intersect one another at varying intervals, dividing the rocks into a series of approximately horizontal wedges with curved faces. The principal variation is in the closeness of these intersections. In some places the horizontal joints intersect one another every 20 or 30 feet; in others they run parallel to one another for 100 feet or more. In general the horizontal jointing is more regular, though not necessarily better developed, where the amount of vertical jointing is small. A good example of this may be seen in the gneissoid granite quarry at Monson, Mass., where there is an excellent parallel horizontal jointing but vertical joints are almost lacking and except at the immediate surface are filled with vein material.

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FAULTS.

Faults may be considered as extreme types of joints in which there has been movement of one wall of the joint plane past the other. The work of Hobbs, Davis, and others has shown that there has been a considerable amount of faulting in Connecticut, and it is not uncommon to find strongly marked shear zones, indicating slipping in the crystalline rocks. These are rather rare phenomena, however, and are seldom encountered in well drilling; accordingly they will be treated simply as special cases of jointing. They are probably very important as channels for spring waters, although it is extremely difficult and generally impossible to ascribe any particular spring to a fault plane.

CIRCULATION AND STORAGE OF WATER.

The circulation of water in the crystalline rocks, being confined to openings of the sort discussed in the foregoing pages—that is, those having great length as compared with their thickness—is necessarily limited by the abundance of these planes of parting, by their degree of opening, and by their intersection of one another; and there are many modifying factors, such as local entrance conditions for surface waters, local textural variations in the rock, intrusions and inclusions of other rocks, and the restraining effect of overlying glacial drift.

INFLUENCE OF JOINTS AND OTHER OPENINGS.

Spacing of vertical joints.—The vertical joints, which are the important water carriers, have no regularity of spacing even in the same rock. These joints are much more closely spaced in natural outcrops, owing to the influence of weathering, and in railroad cuts where there has been heavy blasting than in quarries where the natural conditions prevailing in the rock below the surface are exhibited. In such natural exposures the spacing of joints was found to vary from a fraction of an inch up to 200 feet or more. The extremely close jointing occurs only in sheeted or shear zones which vary from a few inches to 2 feet in width, and these sheeted zones are a considerable distance from one another. Instances of such close sheeting as to give a spacing of 1 inch are exceptional, and are found in relatively few exposures. The same general occurrence on a larger scale, however, is typical of vertical jointing. In every quarry observed in Connecticut where jointing is developed over a considerable area the joints were found to be much more closely spaced at certain points than at others, constituting a series of zones of close jointing separated by intervals in which the distances between joints are much greater. These zones of close jointing vary from 1 foot to 15 feet in width and the joints making up the sheeted areas are spaced from 3 inches to

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2 feet apart. Purington[a] describes a similar but more regular occurrence in a Colorado mine where, along the side of a drift, fissures 30 feet apart become nearer and nearer together until they are only 3 or 4 inches apart, forming a sheeted zone, beyond which the intervals gradually increase.

A number of observations on joint series in the Connecticut crystalline rocks indicate that at the places where jointing is well developed the average spacing is between 3 and 7 feet. It is very difficult to form an estimate of the average spacing for all rocks, however, for in some localities, as in the quarries at Monson, Mass., and Sterling, Conn., there are exposures of several acres where the rock has been quarried, and not more than three or four open joints can be distinguished in the entire quarry, giving a spacing of at least 100 feet. Here and there older joints may be distinguished which have been filled with vein material, but these can yield no water under present conditions.

If it were supposed that all the vertical joints were placed in parallel planes, both major and minor series, it is probable that the average spacing would not be less than 7 feet to a depth of 50 feet from the surface. The average spacing between vertical joints of the same series for the crystalline rocks, exclusive of trap and limestone, is more than 10 feet for this same zone of 50 feet from the surface, as shown by field observations, and the study of well records indicates that this is not far from the average spacing for all joints to a depth of 100 feet.

Spacing of horizontal joints.—The horizontal joints present much greater regularity of spacing than the vertical joints. They are apparently surface phenomena and diminish in number rapidly with increasing depth; it is probable that they do not exist at a depth of 200 feet. For the first 20 feet below the surface these horizontal joints average 1 foot apart, for the next 30 feet they average between 4 and 7 feet, and for the next 50 feet they are much more widely spaced, being from 6 to 30 feet or more apart.

Continuity of horizontal joints.—The length of individual horizontal joints rarely exceeds 150 feet, but owing to their intersection of one another they may constitute a continuous opening several hundred feet long, which would have the form of a curved sheet approximately parallel to the hill slope, each lower sheet having less curvature than the one above. They are probably better developed on the hills than in the valleys, as the pitch of the joints is usually less than the slope of the surface, which consequently cuts across the joints. Moreover, as they are more widely spaced with depth the horizontal joints that cross the valleys are widely spaced.

[a] Purington, C. W., Preliminary report on the mining industries of the Telluride quadrangle, Colorado: Eighteenth Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 3, 1898, pp. 765-769.

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Continuity of vertical joints.—There are two directions in which vertical joints may have great length—vertically, or along their dip, and in the direction in which they cut the surface. No mathematical relation between these two directions has been determined, but it has been assumed in the study of ore deposits that a fracture will have about as great extent along the dip plane as along the strike plane.[a] The degree of continuity is very uncertain owing to the difficulty of direct observation on either the entire length or the depth of any joint, and to the fact that a joint may exist with its two sides so closely pressed together that the fracture is not apparent to the naked eye. It is certain that some joints are far more continuous than others and that many die out within very short distances both vertically and laterally. Faults have the greatest continuity and may extend for several miles across the country, or even for tens of miles. The sheeted zones of closed jointing are probably almost as continuous as faults, and their dimensions should be measured in hundreds of feet. Where there is a well-defined series of parallel joints the prominent joints may extend for several hundred feet, while the minor intersecting joints will be much shorter.

Fissility and schistosity openings.—The circulation of water as determined by structure planes has not been discussed up to this point because the evidence is not as clear as in the case of joints. Although it is probable that the absorptive capacity of a schist would be greater than that of a slate, owing to the larger size of the grains, the porosity would still be too small to allow any circulation in the pores. In a crumpled schist there are probably small openings between the folded laminæ, but these must be discontinuous and would not allow sufficiently rapid circulation for well supply. However, there are nearly everywhere fractures of considerable extent parallel to the schistosity, but with much less regularity of occurrence than the joint planes in the same rock. These fractures also are much less continuous than joints and die out within short distances.

In such discontinuous fractures the circulation would be comparatively slow, but sufficient for well supply. Small springs issue from such fractures at many places, as along the east bank of Connecticut River above Hadlyme Landing. These fractures are much more numerous near the surface, particularly where the dip of the schistosity is in a low plane, and become tighter and less abundant with increasing depth.

Intersection of fractures.—It has been shown that the main circulation of water available for well supplies in crystalline rocks is along jointing planes, and it will be shown later that some joints carry a

[a] Ransome, F. L., Economic geology of the Silverton quadrangle, Colorado: Bull. U. S. Geol. Survey No. 182, 1901, pp. 61, 62.

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greater amount of circulating water than others. It is evident that the intersection of joints with one another is a very important factor in determining the degree and direction of the underground-water circulation.

The manner of occurrence of joints indicates that such intersection may be found in every possible direction, but that there will be much better connection in some of them than in others. In the granitoid rocks, where the vertical joints have little regularity of arrangement and therefore intersect one another at many points, and where the horizontal joints are nearly universal, there is a thorough connection between the various fractures of the upper zone in which the horizontal joints occur. In the schists and schistose gneisses, in which the joints are usually more regular in arrangement and in which the horizontal joints are poorly developed, the connection between the various joints is less complete. In these schistose types, as in the granitoid rocks, there are invariably cross joints connecting the main systems, but they are commonly considerable distances apart and are tighter than the main joints, so that the opportunity for lateral transmission of water from one joint to another parallel joint is less than for longitudinal transmission along the main joints. The connection of the small and discontinuous fractures in the planes of schistosity is much poorer than that of the joints.

Opening of joints.—The degree of opening between the walls of joints is exceedingly variable and very difficult to measure. At the immediate surface many joints have an opening of half an inch to 2 inches, or even much greater. This wide opening is due to various weathering and mechanical agencies, which act only near the surface, and consequently is not found at depths below which these agents act. In an artificial cut, such as a quarry wall, many of the joints which may be open half an inch at the surface are too tight to admit a knife blade at a depth of 25 feet.

The joints at 30 feet below the surface may have only one-twentieth the opening that they have at the surface, but the same proportionate tightening will not continue at lower depths, although it is certain that the greater the depth the greater must be the tendency of joints to close, owing to increased pressure and to the smaller opportunity for lateral expansion below the level of minor topographic relief.

The closing with increasing depth is, of course, a measure of the vertical continuity of the joint, and it seems very probable that there is a direct relation between vertical and longitudinal continuity. Accordingly there is a great variation in the depths at which different joints close; the smaller joints close at moderate depths, but the larger joints continue to varying greater depths according to their importance.

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If the above statement holds true, the closing of the joints produces not only a tightening with increasing depth, but also a decrease in number or a widening of the space between joints. This principle applied to the vertical joints is closely analogous to the tightening and increase of spacing of the horizontal joints with increasing depth, which may be observed at nearly any granite quarry, although the causes producing the two types may be different.

The application of this principle in the drilling of wells is of the utmost importance, as it is frequently asserted that water can always be obtained by going deep enough, whereas the deeper the well the less the chance of striking fractures, which are the only passages permitting water transmission in crystalline rocks. It is evident that, owing to the closing with depth, there will be a much greater circulation in the upper half than in the lower half of any individual joint.

Though many of the joint openings are supercapillary in size, most of them are probably of large capillary size. The upper limit of capillary sheet openings is about one one-hundredth of an inch, which gives an opening of appreciable size, but in a freshly quarried wall the greater proportion of the joints have manifestly less width than this. A rough estimate of the degree of opening of joints may be made from the yield of wells in the crystalline rocks, which average about 17 gallons a minute, although the greater number give less than 15 gallons a minute. The average well intersects between three and four joints, and this number of saturated joints would supply much more than the average yield of the wells if the openings were appreciably larger than capillary size. These openings, however, must be toward the upper limit of capillarity in order to yield 10 to 15 gallons a minute. Some wells undoubtedly pass through openings of much greater width than 0.01 inch, and nearly every well driller can cite several instances when his drilling tools have suddenly dropped several inches. Although the driller usually considers the sudden fall of the tools to indicate an open crevice, the probability is that no actual open space exists, but that a fracture has been encountered in which decomposition has softened the rock walls to such an extent that the material offers little or no resistance to the heavy drill. Nearly every quarry in the crystalline areas of Connecticut gives examples of such decomposed strips bordering joints, but such an occurrence as an opening wider than a fraction of an inch in crystalline rocks, except at the immediate surface, is practically unknown to quarrymen.

It is probable that openings of considerable size occur along fault planes, but faults are relatively few as compared with joints, and there is small chance of a drill hole penetrating them. Some of the wells of larger capacity may derive their water from such fault

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openings, although more probably it comes from a closely sheeted zone.

Number of contributory joints.—The number of fractures supplying water to a single well varies greatly in different wells. In some wells the greater part of the water appears to come from a single opening; in others the water comes in slowly from a large number of openings. In the average well there are from one to four horizons at which the principal supplies of water are obtained, although the yield from one of them is usually greater than that from all the others together. This is particularly true of the wells from 200 to 300 feet deep, in which the principal source is usually very close to the bottom of the well.

From the character of the fractures in the varying rocks it seems probable that the wells in gneiss and the deeper wells in granite derive their main supplies from one or two comparatively large openings, but that in the more schistose rocks the fractures contributing water are more numerous but less open. In the upper portions of the wells in granite the horizontal joints contribute a series of small supplies below the point where the water level is struck.

If an average inclination of 70° from the horizontal and an average spacing of 10 feet is assumed for the vertical joints for the upper 200 feet of rock, each well 200 feet in depth would intersect seven joints. This is probably not far from the average for all the wells, exclusive of the small and discontinuous fractures near the surface. Below 200 feet the average number of joints intersected would be somewhat decreased for the next 100 feet and greatly decreased at lower depths than 300 feet. It is evident that in some localities the joints are much more closely spaced than in others, that locally they are highly inclined and elsewhere lie at low angles, and that all these factors modify the number of fractures which a well intersects.

WATER LEVEL.

If the fractures were all equally open and had complete connection with one another, there would be a zone of saturation in the crystalline rocks and the upper surface or water table of this saturated zone would follow rather closely the shape of the rock surface, as in sand or other homogeneous porous material. Under such conditions the water in adjacent wells should rise to the same level. In homogeneous sands the upper limit of the saturated zone is called the water table. In describing the occurrence of water in joints the term "water level" will be used to indicate the upper limit of the saturated portions of the joints.

Observation shows that the fractures are of greatly varying degree of opening, and that although most of them are connected with one another in some way the connection is much better in some places

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than in others. It is to be expected that under such conditions water will rise to different heights, even in joints which are close together, when there is no connection or very poor connection between them. As a typical instance of such variation may be cited the wells drilled for the Fitch Home for Soldiers at Noroton Heights, Conn. One well was drilled to a depth of 425 feet in the bottom of a small valley, resulting in a flow of 4 gallons a minute that rose more than 7 feet above the surface. A second well was drilled 130 feet away and at an elevation only 4 feet higher, to a depth of 503 feet, and in this well the water rose only within 15 feet of the surface. Both wells passed through about 12 feet of hardpan. The difference of pressure head in these wells, only 130 feet apart but evidently deriving their water from different fractures, is therefore more than 18 feet. Both these wells give heavy yields on pumping and the pumping of the second well does not affect the flowing well, although it lowers the level of the water in an old drilled well higher on the hillside. Similar occurrences have been noted at other places, even in wells less than 100 feet deep.

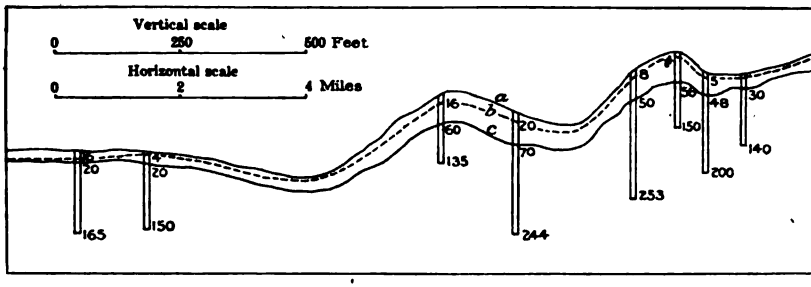

FIGURE 13.—Sketch showing relation of water level to topography. *a*, Surface of ground; *b*, line indicating height at which water stands in wells; *c*, rock surface.

Although there are local irregularities in the water level in the crystalline rocks, such as that just described, the general surface of the saturated zone still follows the topography, as is shown by the heights at which the water stands in the various wells. (See fig. 13.) The following table indicates the relation of the level at which the water stands in the wells to the surface of the rock:

Relation of water level in wells to surface of rock.

Position.	Number of wells averaged.	Percentage with water level—		
		Below rock surface.	Above rock surface.	Even with rock surface.
Hills	42	61.9	26.2	11.9
Valleys	24	12.5	87.5	0
Slopes	35	48.5	40.0	11.5

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It is thus evident that on the hills the water tends to stand below the rock surface, but that in the valleys it is under sufficient hydrostatic head to rise above the rock surface and under favorable conditions to cause flowing wells.

At many places on the hills the tendency of the water level in the crystalline rocks to stand lower than the rock surface gives rise to an unsaturated zone immediately below the drift, although the lower portion of the drift itself may be completely saturated and furnish excellent supplies for comparatively shallow dug wells of large diameter. The existence of such an unsaturated belt is believed to be due to the facts that the movement of water in certain places is more rapid through the upper fractured portion of the rock where the joints are open than through the relatively small capillary openings of the drift and that the water, having opportunity to escape from the rock crevices at some point lower than the entering point, is carried away down to a certain level faster than it is furnished. In some localities, however, where the fractures do not allow escape at lower levels, the water table of the drift and of the rock may be the same; that is, in wells deriving water from rock seams the water may rise to the same level as in open wells in the drift above. However, owing to the generally rapid movement in fracture planes the general water level tends to approach a flatter plane in crystalline rocks than in porous materials like sand, where there is greater frictional resistance to water flow and where the effect of capillary flow is greater.

The term "water level," as used in reference to the depth below the surface at which water stands in the openings of crystalline rocks, in its broad sense, implies a surface with much smaller differences of elevation than the water table of a sandstone area having similar topographic relief, but with much greater minor irregularity, owing to the great variation in the water channels. The larger fractures extending for long distances usually have some outlet to the surface, but in many of the smaller joints the water passes from one joint to another with no surface outlet. The fast flow in the larger joints lowers the level of the water in these and connected joints below that in neighboring unconnected joints having poorer outlets. Even in a connected series the water level will have different heights in joints of varying opening, owing to the faster flow in the more open joints, where friction is less.

DIRECTION OF CIRCULATION.

The movement of water entering any joint above the point where it is saturated with water will be mainly vertical along the dip or inclination of the joint. The circulation below the water level in any joint is both vertical and lateral. The lateral motion, along the

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strike of the joint, predominates, owing to the fact that the length of the outlet or outlets for any particular joint is much smaller than the total length of the joint. Any connected series of joints there will manifestly have a very complex circulation, but the main circulation will be toward and along the fractures having the largest openings and the nearest outlets, and in these fractures the general movement will be in the direction in which the land slopes.

DECOMPOSITION AS A MEASURE OF CIRCULATION.

The relative importance of various joints in the water circulation is indicated by the decomposing effect of the water on the walls of the fracture planes. The oxidizing surface waters carrying carbon dioxide and organic acids naturally react on the minerals in the rock walls, the action being indicated in some places by a mere reddish-brown staining of the joint sides and here and there by a breaking down of the mineral particles, giving rise to a disintegrated border along the joint plane. There is a great difference in the amount of this weathering, even in joints which may be adjacent members of the same series, indicating that some joints are heavier water carriers than others of the same age, probably owing to greater opening and in some of them to better entrance conditions. The areas of greatest decomposition are along the sheeted zones, and next along the most continuous vertical joints, and in these fractures the weathering extends down to the limit of observation, with no apparent change. In the minor joints the weathering effects are less conspicuous and usually appear to the observer as mere discolorations, extending from half an inch to 3 inches or more on each side of the joint plane and becoming less marked with increasing depth.

As a rule the horizontal joints of the granitoid rocks show less weathering than the minor vertical joints. Though usually discolored and weathered near the surface, the walls of these joints are commonly unaltered at a depth of 20 feet. However, where the horizontal joints are cut by a prominent weathered vertical joint, the weathering effect extends along the adjacent horizontal joints to a very marked degree, diminishing in amount with increasing distance from the vertical joint. This feature is well shown in the granite gneiss quarry of the Rhode Island Brown Stone Company, 1½ miles west of the railway station at Oneco, Conn. At this quarry a heavy discoloration extends along the flat joints for a distance of 25 feet from a vertical joint, gradually diminishing in intensity. Occasionally a flat joint is found which is weathered throughout its exposed length. (See Pl. III, *B*.)

In the sheeted zones it is common to find a strip of disintegrated material from 1 to 6 inches in thickness and in the large single vertical joints similar but narrower bands of disintegrated rock occur.

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Through such material as this a large amount of water can pass with comparative ease.

If the degree of decomposition along joint planes is taken as a criterion of the amount of circulation along the joints it would appear that the circulation is mainly along the large vertical joints, next along the minor vertical joints, and in small amounts along the horizontal joints. Although this statement is probably true as to the proportionate amounts of circulation it does not mean that the unweathered vertical or horizontal joints are dry. The probability is that the lower horizontal joints are saturated with water, but that owing to the relatively flat planes in which they lie and their tendency to tighten at their intersection with one another, the water has a very feeble circulation.

The horizontal joints are probably much younger than the vertical joints and weathering has had less time in which to act, but the fact that some are weathered more than others indicates that even in these joints, which are manifestly of the same age, some offer better conditions than others for water circulation.

STORAGE OF WATER.

The wells in the crystalline area of Connecticut are remarkably constant, showing little variation in yield or depth of water, either annually or through a period of years. In some the yield has increased since the well was drilled and in a few it has decreased, but most of the wells have shown no appreciable change. The level to which the water rises in the wells shows nearly as great constancy as the yield, although in the shallower wells the water level varies somewhat with seasonal variations in rainfall, and in some of the deeper wells a lowering of water level has been noticed in unusually dry years. These fluctuations are most conspicuous in wells of small yield. In nearly all wells the water level is lowered to a greater or less extent on pumping, until by this lowering a sufficient increase of head is obtained to give an increased rapidity of flow, which will furnish a yield equal to that pumped out. When the pump is stopped the water will gradually, or in some wells very rapidly, rise again to its normal level. Minor fluctuations are probably more common than is reported, as changes in level are not readily noticed in covered wells. However, it is evident that there must be a very constant supply of underground water to maintain so constant a level in the wells.

The total average yearly rainfall in Connecticut is 46.89 inches, rather uniformly distributed throughout the year, and this uniformity of precipitation will, under natural conditions, with no artificial removal of water, give a fairly constant level for ground water in the rocks. If 25 per cent of this amount of rainfall is

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assumed to be absorbed by the rocks—undoubtedly a considerably higher percentage than is actually absorbed—the total amount absorbed by an area of rock 100 feet square is 9,768 cubic feet, or 73,260 gallons. A well pumping 15 gallons a minute, which is about the average yield of wells in the Connecticut crystalline rocks, would draw out this amount in 81.4 hours. A well of this capacity pumping for 300 days during the year for one hour a day would withdraw an amount of water equal to 25 per cent of all the water falling on an area within a radius of 108 feet around the well. Probably 10 per cent of the precipitation more nearly represents the proportion absorbed by the rock than 25 per cent, and if so a well pumping at the rate above indicated would draw all the water on an area more than twice as great. When it is considered that some wells are pumped at the rate of 30 gallons a minute for ten hours a day throughout the year, it is evident that a single well may drain a very large area of all the water it absorbs.

With an average spacing for all fractures of 5 feet and an average opening of 0.01 inch, the saturated fractures in 1,000,000 cubic feet of rock, equivalent to a depth of 100 feet for a surface area 100 feet square, would hold 833 cubic feet of water, which a well with a capacity of 15 gallons a minute could pump out in seven hours if there were no renewal of the supply.

These figures are sufficient to indicate that the area contributing to any one well must be very large to maintain a constant level for the water in the well. Owing to the shape of joints and the manner in which they intersect one another this contributing area will be in the form of a number of long and comparatively narrow intersecting belts, and the well will draw water from very long distances. Wells on islands surrounded by salt water have been successful in obtaining supplies of fresh water, but they are usually moderate in yield and frequently somewhat contaminated by salt water, so that as a general rule fresh water obtained in these locations consists of that which has fallen on the island itself. Fuller,[a] however, cites a well on Fishers Island, 3 miles from the Connecticut coast, that penetrated 281 feet of unconsolidated gravel, sand, and clay in which salt water was found, and obtained fresh water in the crystalline rock below. No outcrops of crystalline rock occur on this island, and it seems clear that the fresh water must have come through the joint openings from the mainland 3 miles away. The water is evidently held in the rock openings by the restraining covering of clay above the rock.

As the head in all the wells is fairly constant, it is evident that the yield in any well is proportional to the number and opening of the fractures contributing water. As the heaviest yields are derived from the most open joints, and as these joints are the most continuous

[a] Fuller, M. L., Geology of Fishers Island: Bull. Geol. Soc. America, vol. 16, 1905, p. 372.

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(see pp. 66–67), the following relation holds: The yield of water from a joint is proportional to its continuity, which depends partly on the number of intersecting joints and which consequently determines the area contributing to the wells. If this relation is true, and the yield is proportional to the contributing area, it follows that there will be no permanent change of head in the well until the amount withdrawn by the well is greater than the annual absorption of rainfall throughout the contributing area. This statement may be made in another way: When a small amount of water is pumped from a well the contributing area is small, but as larger amounts are pumped the contributing area is increased and the more remote connecting joints give their contribution to adjust the difference of level caused by the tendency toward depressions of the water level in the immediate vicinity of the well. Owing to frictional resistance to flow there will, of course, be some depression at this point, but it is probably relatively small. When the amount withdrawn by the well annually is greater than the amount annually absorbed by the contributing area the water level in each connecting joint is lowered and a permanent lowering of the water level results. As any lowering of the water level means a loss of head for the well, and as the head determines the rapidity of flow into the well, it is evident that when the water level is lowered the yield of the well will immediately decrease.

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TABULATED WELL RECORDS.

The following tables, with the notes succeeding them, comprise the information obtained regarding the wells in the crystalline rocks. Logs of four of these wells are shown graphically in figure 14.

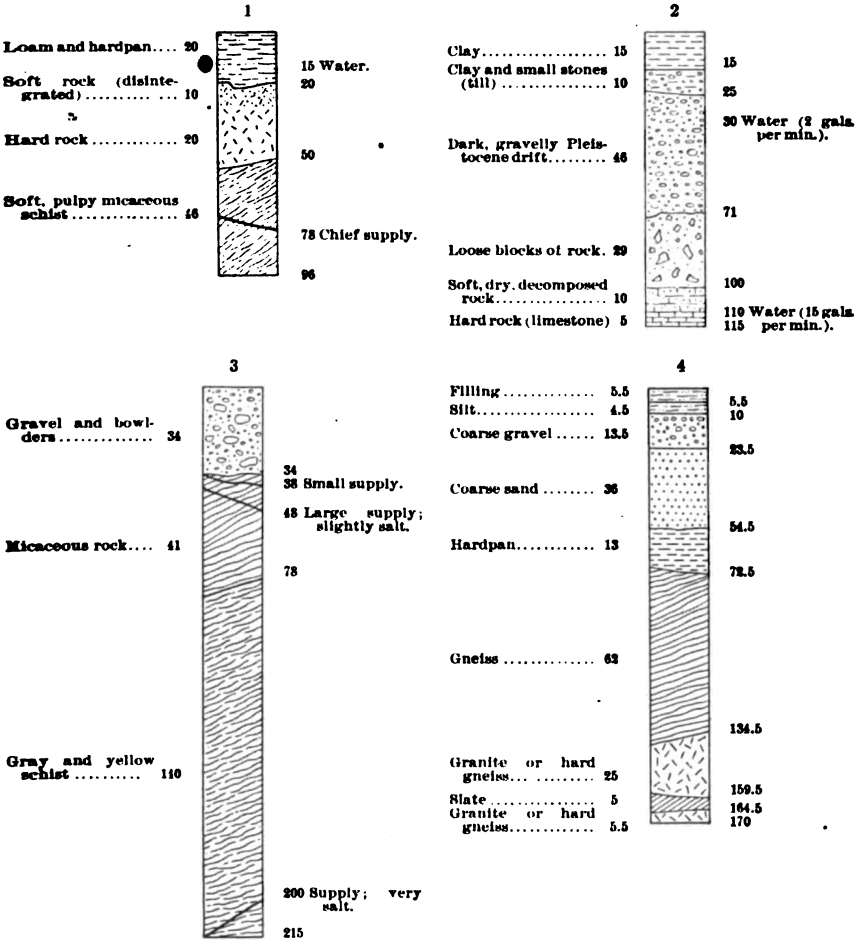

FIGURE 14.—Logs of wells in crystalline rocks. 1, Well of Thomas Fogarty, Ansonia; data furnished by C. F. Underwood. 2, Well of Miss E. O. Wheeler, Sharon; data furnished by A. J. Corcoran. 3, Well of Atlantic Starch Works, Westport. 4, Well of Sidney Blumenthal Company, Shelton; data furnished by the company.

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Records of wells in crystalline rocks of Connecticut.

No.[a]	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth of rock.	Depth of well.	Depth of principal source.	Depth to water.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter.	Temperature.	Quality.	Use.	Rock in which well is drilled.	Cost per foot.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*				
1	Ansonia		Ansonia O. and C. Co.	Valley plain			209	209	20		16	8			Bleaching	Granite or granodiorite.	$5.00
*2	do		Thos. Fogarty	Hill	20	76	96	78	15		20	7		Med. hard.	General	do	4.50
3	do	Woodbridge Hill.	Mrs. Gilbert	do	10	90	100				Small.					Phyllite	
4	Barkhamsted		C. H. Tiffany	do			15	14½	6	Seasonal to 0.		33	45	Soft	Domestic	Schist or gneiss.	
5	Bethany		Arthur Doolittle				25	20	12		[b] 1,000			do		Slate	3.00
6	do		Albert Hosely	Slope			68			Seasonal	3	6		do	Domestic, stock.	Granodiorite.	
*7	do		H. F. Peck	Ridge	14	36½	50½	50½	16	do	3	6	48	Hard	Domestic	do	
8	Branford	Stony Creek	E. H. Coe	Shore, elevation 8 feet.			20		7	do					do	Granite	
9	do	do	Jas. S. Elton	Island	2	148	150			Pumps dry	[b] 250					do	
*10	do		J. C. Anderson	Island, elevation 6 feet.	2½	92	94½		10		Good.					Gneiss	
11	do	Short Beach	J. D. Welch	Slope, elevation 20 feet.	13	87	100	94	13	Constant	6	6		Hard	Stock, lawn	Gneissoid	5.00
12	Bridgeport		Hartman Brewing Co.	Valley plain	90	165	255		35			10	51	do	Brewing, condensing, washing.	Schist or granodiorite.	
13	do		do	do	11½	40	15½		15	Constant	35	6	51	Med.	Brewing, washing, boiler.	do	4.00
14	do		A. Städtler	Hill	8	69	77	80	30	do	15	6		do	Drinking	do	6.50
15	do		Naugatuck Valley Ice Co.	Valley plain	42	648	690	120	18		8	8	52	Hard	Condensing.	Granodiorite.	
16	do		do	do	42	108	150				0			do	do	do	
17	do		do	do	42	8	50				10			do	do		
*18	Bristol		New Departure Mfg. Co.	Valley	50	265	315	75-150	12	Pumping lowers to 80 feet.	20	8, 6	54	Soft	Boilers	Granite	
19	Brooklyn		Church of Sacred Heart.	Slope			106	106	28		12	6		Hard	Drinking, boiler.	Gneiss	3.00
20	Canaan	Falls Village	Dwight E. Dean		50	105	155		50	Constant	10	5		Med.	Domestic	Limestone	2.00

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21	Chatham	East Hampton	Lake View Cemetery Assoc.	Hill	8	27	35	35		Seasonal	Small.			Hard	Watering	Schist or granite.	
22	do	do	Mrs. S. B. Childs	do	13	162	175	174	2	Slight seasonal.		60		Med. soft.	Domestic	do	5.00
23	do	do	N. N. Hill		6	48	54		4		3+	6		Hard	General	do	5.00
24	do	do	D. A. Rich	Slope	6½	42	48½		7		½	6		Soft	Domestic	do	5.00
25	do	do	Chas. Lucas	do			38	35						do	do	do	
26	do	do	Center School district.	Slight elevation.	1	29	30	25	18	Seasonal		6		Hard	General	do	4.00
27	do	do	N. N. Hill Brass Co.	Stream bed	6	121	127	40	4		10+	6		Iron	General, factory.	Schist	3.25
28	do	do	A. N. Conklin		7	23	30	20	3			36		Hard	Domestic	Schist or granite.	3.35
29	do	do	F. S. Hall		22	14	36	28	22		⅛					do	
30			Mrs. I. H. Stone	Hill	0	142½	142½	142½	50		10	6		Med. soft.	Domestic	Gneiss	
31	Colchester		Dr. E. B. Craigin	Hilltop	16	185	201	185	9		7	6		Iron		Schist	
32	do		Danl. W. Williams.	Slope			81					6		do	Stock	do	
33	do		Chas. N. Taintor	Hill	10	92	102	90	12	Siphoned and constant.		6 6		Iron, soft.	Domestic, stock.	do	3.50
34	Colebrook		H. D. Northrop	do	10	67	77	First at 55.	17		2½	6		Med	do	Gneiss	4.50
35	Coventry	Mansfield Depot.	Dr. F. E. Johnson	Plain	10	30	40	40			Small.	6	50	Soft	Stock	Schist	
36	Danbury		Geo. N. Frost	Slope	1½	44½	46	44	16		3	3	50	do		Granodiorite or gneiss.	
37	do		Chas. H. Brundage.	do	6	48	54	51	18	Constant	Good.	4	51 48	do	Domestic	Gneiss	
38	do		do		0	68	68	62	15		Very large.			do	Stock	do	
39	do		District school		3	69	72				Large.			do	General	do	
40	do		V. B. Buck	Hill	4	108	112		30		Good.	6		do	Domestic	do	
41	do		G. H. Knapp	Hill slope	6	65	71	71	6		Fair.	4	54	do	do	do	
42	do		Leonard Salmons	Plain	12	40	52		12		Small.	4	50	Hard	do	do	
43	do		Alexander Turner		30	152	182		20			6		Soft	Domestic, garden.		5.00
44	Darien		Geo. P. Brett	Hilltop	50	180	230	220	20	Constant	20	6		Hard	Domestic	Granodiorite.	
*45	do	Noroton Heights.	Fitch Home for Soldiers.	Small Valley	13	490	503	400	15		26	8	56		General	Gneiss	
*46	do	do	do	do	12	413	425	335–425	Flows+7	Pumping lowers to 80 feet.	4 flowing, 50 pumping.	8	53		do	do	
47	do		Dr. Delafield				126		18		10	6				Granodiorite.	
48	do	Noroton	William Zeigler	Island	Small.		200				Poor.			Salty		Gneissoid granite.	

[a] Additional details concerning wells marked * are given on pp. 90–91.

[b] Per day.

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Records of wells in crystalline rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth of rock.	Depth of well.	Depth of principal source.	Depth to water.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter.	Temperature.	Quality.	Use.	Rock in which well is drilled.	Cost per foot.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*				
49	Darien	Noroton	William Zeigler	Island	Small		1465				3			Brackish.		Gneissoid granite.	
50	Derby		Derby and Ansonia Brewing Co.	Valley plain	80	85	165				30	6				Granite	
51	East Haddam	Hadlyme	H. Weinstein	Slope	30	70	100	99	30		1	6		Hard	Domestic	Schist	
52	do	do	Allen Willey	do	3	57	60	55			Small.	6		Soft	Drinking	do	
53	do	Moodus	F. B. and S. P. Clark.	do	4	36	40				Good.			Hard	Domestic	do	
54	do		Geo. Wykes	Hill	0	100	100	75	53	Pumping lowers.	1½	6	40	Soft		do	
55	East Haven	Fair Haven	Andrew Holleran				66½				5	4		Med	General		
56	East Lyme	Niantic	Andrew Champion.	Coast, elevation 10 feet.	39	29	68	65	5	Constant	20	6			Domestic	Granite	
57	do	Crescent Beach	Atwood Collins	Plain	28	66	94	80	20		2½				do	Gneiss	
58	Easton		E. F. Wheeler	Hill	11	114	125	110	30	Slightly affected by pumping.	15	6	50	Soft	Sold	Granite, schist.	$4.75
59	Essex		Essex Wood Turning Co.	River flat			212							Salty			
60	Fairfield	Southport	J. H. Perry	Small elevation	10	158	168	160	10		3	5		Hard	Domestic	Schistose gneiss.	3.00
61	do	do	Miss Frances Wakeman.	Hill			190		10	Constant				Soft	do	do	
62	do	Greenfield hill.	S. Pease		9	13	22	18	4			36		do	do		
63	Franklin	Yantic	G. E. Starkweather.	Slope			12	10				48		do	do	Schist or gneiss.	
64	Greenwich	Sound Beach	A. A. Marks	Slope, elevation 30 feet.	0	20	20	18	3	Seasonal				do	Boiler	Granodiorite.	
65	do		Emil L. Boas	do	65	235	300	240			12	8		Med	Domestic, garden.	Granite	
66	do		Mrs. A. W. Mansfield.	Hill	2½	117½	120	50	8		30	6		Iron	Domestic	Granodiorite.	
67	do		H. O. Havemeyer	do	35	140	175	150	50	Constant	50	6	55		General	do	7.00
68	do		Wm. S. Todd	Slope	10	133	143		10	Lowers		6		Soft	Domestic, stock.	Granite	
69	do		John Mahar	Slope	22	178	200	160	Flows.		Pumps 70					Granodiorite.	
70	do		Jaynes Parh	Base of hill	8	52	60	48	Flows.					Soft		do	

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71	Greenwich	Sound Beach	E. C. Benedict		0	225	225				37			Brackish.		Granodiorite.	
72	do		do		0	265	265							do		do	
73	do		E. W. Bullinger		4	249	253				1						
74	Griswold	Glasgo	J. G. Bill	Hill	6	56	62	60	22		12	6	50	Hard	Domestic	Gneiss or gabbro.	
*75	do	Jewett City	Aspinook Co.	do			30 / 60		12-20		a 10			Soft	Drinking, washing, bleaching.	Gneiss	(b)
76	Groton	Eastern Point.	J. Hunt Smith	Elevation 20 feet.	9	55	64	50	40	Said to vary with tide.		6			Domestic	Granite	
77	do		Thos. W. Avery	Hill	20	95	115	100	30	Rapidly lowered.	Poor.	6	50			do	
78	do	Eastern Point.	do	do	15	45	60	40	10	Lowered to 35 feet.	Good.	6			Domestic	do	
79	do	Mystic	Miss Alice Damon.	do	12	74	86	86	6		2½	6		Med.	General	Granitic gneiss.	$4.00
*80	do	do	Oral school	do	20	528	548		10		21(?)				do	do	
81	do	do	Benj. Barrows	do	0	30	30		8		2						3.00
*82	do		J. F. & N. D. Sevin.	Slope, elevation 100 feet.	12	38	50	28-40	6		4	6		Med. hard.	Domestic	Granite	4.50
83	do		Capt. T. Hamilton.	Hill			290	280	30			6		Soft	do	do	5.75
84	do		C. H. Marquardt	do			100	90	30			6	45		General	do	6.00
85	do		G. W. Maxley	do	25	30	55		40	Pumps dry		6		Soft	Domestic	do	
86	do		Florence S. Kilern.	Coast plain			43		8			6		do	do	do	5.00
87	Guilford	Leete Island	Fred Butler	Hill	6	60	66	60	25	Pumping lowers.		6		do	Drinking	do	4.00
88	do	do	R. M. Leete	Slope	12	50	62	60	20	do	1	6	48	Med. hard.	General	do	3.75
89	do	Sachem's Head	N. E. Wordin	do	11	36½	47½	47	½	do	8-	6	52	Hard	do	do	5.00
90	do	do	do	do	4	52	56	52	4	Pumping does not lower.	10+	6	52	do	do	do	5.00
91	do	do	F. A. Cummings.	Hillside	1½	45½	47	45	35			6		Soft	Domestic	do	
92	do	do	Mrs. G. B. Mitchell.	Near shore	2	68	70		4		½					do	
93	do	do	Eng. Fish	do	6	211	217		5		35			Salt		do	
94	do	do	do	do	0	43	43		8		1½					do	
95	Haddam	Higganum	E. L. Webb	Hill	3	57	60	30	28		Good.	6		Hard		Trap dike.	
96	Hebron	Turnerville	Edw. W. Bill	do	16	85	101	65	6		60	6		Hard, iron.	Domestic, stock.	Schist	4.00
*97	Huntington	Shelton	Sidney Blumenthal Co.	Valley	73	97½	170½									Granite and gneiss.	
98	do	do	Oscar Wright		25	76	96	96			8					50 feet phyllite slate, 21 feet granite.	

a Average.

b Total cost, $1,597 for nine wells.

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Records of well in crystalline rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth of rock.	Depth of well.	Depth of principal source.	Depth to water.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter.	Temperature.	Quality.	Use.	Rock in which well is drilled.	Cost per foot.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*				
99	Killingly	Danielson	S. C. Hutchins				50 / 80		0		4			Hard	General	Gneiss	
100	Madison		G. A. Wilcox	Rockyhill	8	55	63	63	8	Seasonal	Good.	6		Hard, iron.	Domestic, heating.	do	$5.00
101	do	North Madison	J. Heinemann	Hill	4	68	72				Large.	6		Soft	Domestic	Granite	
102	Mansfield	Storrs	Connecticut Agricultural College.	do	9	841	850	800	36	Pumping lowers slightly.	40	6	52	do	do	Schist	8.00
103	Middletown	Higganum	Inocente Tolette	do	18	132	150	125	8	Pumps dry.		6		do	do	Granite	4.00
104	Milford	Naugatuck Junction.	Chas. G. Root		30	45	75		30			6		Hard	do	Phyllite	
105	do	Naugatuck	J. O. R. Sheridan	Flat	0	43	43		6		1				General	Granodiorite.	
106	Monroe	Stepney Depot.	A. B. Curtiss	Slope	7	32	39		12	Constant		4		Soft	Domestic	Schist	
107	Montville	Uncasville	Mrs. E. R. Burchard.	do	20	80	100		15	do				Hard	do	Gneiss	
*108	do		Jacob Irons	do	2½	50	52½		2			6				do	
109	New Canaan		T. W. Hall	Hilltop	20	145	165	125	18	Constant	25	6	50	Hard	General	Granite	5.00
110	do		A. J. Gray	Slope	54	50	104		30	do	7	6	1	do	Manufacture of mineral waters.	do	5.75
111	do		B. Fischer estate	Ridge			130						50	do	Domestic	do	5.00
112	do		L. P. Child	Hill			156		64	Constant	15	6		do	General, greenhouse.	do	
113	do		L. D. Alexander	Ridge	35	215	248	240	15	Pumping lowers.	Good.	5	50	Soft	Domestic	do	
114	do		C. F. Diefenteler		60	93	153	153	18	Pumping lowers to 50 feet.	20					do	
115	do	New Canaan	Sturgis Coffin	Hill	56	94	150		4		18	6				do	
116	do	do	Mrs. W. E. C. Bradley.	do	50	203	253		8		40	6				do.[a]	

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117	....do	....do	Dr. P. H. Williams.	....do	48¼	151¼	200		5	Pumping lowers to 80 feet.	2	6				...do	
118	....do	....do	Mr. Taggart	Slope	65¾	87½	153		20		70	6				Redgrowth	
119	....do	....do	Miss C. A. Bliss	Hilltop	20	130	150		4		40	6				Granite	
120	....do	....do	Theodore Terrill	....do	14	172	186		9		6					...do	
121	New London		Consolidated Street Ry. Co.	Elevation 2 feet	60	73	133		2			6		Saline		...do	
122	New Milford		H. H. Hartwell	Slope	5	60	65	60	5		1½	4	48	Hard, iron.	Domestic		
123	....do		Mrs. O. W. Hoyt	....do	22	38	60	55	25	Seasonal	2	4	51	Soft	...do	Granite	
124	....do		Henry S. S. Kinnlin.	Hill	5	57	62	40	10			5		Hard	...do	...do	4.00
125	....do		W. D. Black	....do			250				Good.				...do	Limestone.	
126	....do	Boardman	Benj. Houghtailing.	Valley	13	44	57		30		3	3	51	Hard	...do	...do	
127	....do	....do	New England Lime Co.	Slope	5	45	50		7	Constant	Good.					...do	
128	Newtown		C. G. Morris	Hill			20		4–20	Dries in summer.		36		Hard		Granodiorite.	
129	Norfolk		A. P. Curtiss		30	78	108		11	Constant	15	6		Soft	General	Gneiss	3.00
130	....do		R. C. Burr		49	17	66		15		15				...do	...do	3.00
131	North Canaan	East Canaan	A. A. Lawrence		18	19½	37½	30	15			40	44	Hard	...do	Limestone	
*132	Norwalk	South Norwalk	Jos. Himmel	Island, elevation 8 feet.			125	20	8		20			Salty	Not used	Granite	5.00
*133	....do	....do	Norwalk Iron Works Co.	Valley	80		260	60	6			8		Hard	Drinking	...do	
134	....do	....do	Meeker Union Foundry Co.	Valley, elevation 4 feet.			107	100	5		Good.	6	45		Drinking, boiler.	...do	4.00
135	....do		Joseph Burns	Valley			247		10		25	6		Salty	Cooling	...do	
136	Norwich		Ulmer Tannery Co.	....do	20	95	115	80	15		10	6		Soft	None	Gneiss	
*137	....do		Montville Street Ry. Co.	Foot of hill			200	190	10				52		Boiler		5.00
138	....do		Frich Co.	....do	0	265	265	170	100		10			Hard	None	Gneiss	6.00
139	....do	Taftville	P. Dion	Hill	11	42½	50½		30			6		...do		...do	
140	....do	....do	Jos. Coron	....do	0	75	75		15	Seasonal		6		Soft	Domestic	...do	
141	....do	....do	Anthony Murphy	Hillside	2	101	103	60	16	Constant	6	6				...do	
142	....do	Norwichtown	Harriet M. Howland.	Hill	80	125	205		10	Pumping lowers 6 feet.	8½	8		Soft		Gneiss, gray blue slate.	
143	Orange	West Haven	Ridgely Larkin	Slope, elevation 30 feet.	20	54	74	74	10		5	6		...do	Domestic	Chlorite schist.	
*144	....do	Woodmont	John W. Merwin	Hill	13	237	250	230	50		Good.	6		Hard	Drinking	...do	
145	....do	....do	J. I. Doolittle	Plain	1	56	57	30–35	Few feet.		Small.	6		Very hard.	...do	Phyllite	4.50
146	Plainfield		J. C. Noyes	Slope	10	90	100	40	18	Pumping lowers.		6		Hard	Domestic	Gneiss	
147	....do	Moosup	All Hallows Church Corp.	....do			117							...do	General	...do	

a No water above 150 feet.

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Records of wells in crystalline rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth of rock.	Depth of well.	Depth of principal source.	Depth to water.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter.	Temperature.	Quality.	Use.	Rock in which well is drilled.	Cost per foot.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*				
148	Plainfield	Moosup	W. H. Wilson	Hill	15	18	33	30		General		8		Hard, iron.	General	Gneiss or schist.	$7.00
149	do	Central Village	G. P. Borjerson	do	3	52	55							Hard	do	Gneiss	
150	do	do	Torrey Bros	Valley	12	43	55	40	10	Constant	20	6	52	Hard, sulphur.	Drinking	do	
151	do	do	Plainfield Woolen Co.	Stream bed	30	132¾	162¾	160	20		20	6		Hard	General	do	2.75
152	do	Wauregan	John A. Baton				53½		Flow.		18			Med	Domestic, cattle.	do	
153	Plymouth	Terryville	Terryville Water Co.	Stream bed	30	70	100	100	Flows+3		30	8	50	Hard	Domestic	Schist	6.00
154	Pomfret		Mrs. M. V. Clark	Slope	18	592	610	600	25		12	6		Hard, sulphur.	Domestic, greenhouse.	Quartzite schist.	5.00
155	do		Wm. G. Jennings	Hill	98	7	105		43		5				General	do	
156	do		do	do	84	28	112		30		6				do	do	
*157	Putnam	Putnam Heights.	Mrs. R. P. Danielson.	do	55	365	420	55	20	Seasonal	2	6	51	Soft	do	do	
158	do	do	Dr. E. M. Harris	Slope	18	627	645		4		4	6		Hard	Domestic, stock.	do	
159	do		G. A. Pettis	Hill slope	18	94	112	110	30			6		do		Gneiss	3.00
160	Redding	Redding Ridge	Julia H. Sanford		7	78	85	65	20		Large.	6		Hard, iron.	Domestic	Schist	4.00
161	do	do	Lester Peck		52	96	148	138	15		30	6			General, stock.	do	3.00
162	Roxbury		Herman Behr & Co.	Hill			486				Dry.	6¼				Garnetiferous schist.	
163	Salisbury		Geo. E. Quaile	do	10	205	215	200	30	Varies	Large.	6	45	Iron	Domestic	Limestone.	
164	Saybrook	Deep River	W. W. Jennings		30	48	78	68	2	Varies, occasionally flows.	Large.	6		Soft	do	Schist or gneiss.	4.50
165	Seymour		O. E. Hurlburt	Hill			88	88	20		4	6		do	do	Granite	
166	do		Mrs. J. W. Spencer.	do	22	52	74	70	12		2½	6	47	do	do	do	3.50
167	do		Catherine R. Warner.	do			280				Failure.	6				do	

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168	do		Jas. Swan	Slope			280	60	12		40				General	do		
169	Sharon		C. A. Low	Hill	25	146	171		20			6		Hard	Domestic, garden.			
*170	do		Miss E. O. Wheeler.	Slope	100	15	115	110	70		15			Very hard.	Domestic	Limestone		
171	Sherman		Geo. A. Barnes	do	12	58	70	50	20		Good.	4		Soft		Gneiss		
172	Sprague	Baltic	N. R. Garden	Hill	3	38	41	15–25	3			120				do		
173	do	do	St. Mary's R. C. Society.	Slope			175		Flows.		9	6		Hard	General	Schist or gneiss.	4.00	
174	do	do	Dr. S. Bouvier	do	27	31	58	56	2	Constant	12			Soft		Gneiss		
175	do	Hanover	Angus Park	do	30	50	80	75	30	do	2	6		do	Domestic	Schist or gneiss.	4.50	
*176	Stafford	West Stafford	Ralph Brown	do	21	26	47	47	22			4	50	do	do	Schist or granite.	5.00	
177	Stamford		H. S. Cammann	Hill			177	177	15	Pumping lowers to 30 feet.	50	6		do	do	Grano-diorite.		
178	do		Patrick Boyle	Plain, elevation 20 feet.			102			Pumping lowers.	Good.	6		do	do	do		
179	do		Dr. A. J. Givens		30	382	412				Very poor.					Paro-diorite		
180	do		Clendenin Echert		25	161	186		52		70			Soft		do		
181	do		Diamond Ice Co.	Shore	50	120	170				15		52	Med. hard.		Grano-diorite.		
182	do		do	do	50	42	92				200			do		do		
183	do	Sound Beach	Mr. Dobbs	Slope			70			Pumping lowers to 50 feet.	20					do		
184	Stonington		Mrs. J. R. Chesebro.	Slope, elevation 30 feet.	3	98	101	78	29		1½	6	50	Hard	Domestic	Granite		
185	do		Atwood-Morrison Co.		28	143	171	30	15		11	6		Salty		do		
186	Thompson		J. M. Chapin	Hill	7	45	52	40	7	Pumping lowers.	15	6		Hard	General	Gneiss	3.00	
187	do		J. N. Kingsbury	do	15	60	75		12–18		15	6		do	Domestic	do		
189	do		Chas. E. Olney	do	13	37	50	15–40	4	Seasonal	2	6		do	Bathing	do		
190	do		N. B. Ream				310		25	Pumping lowers slightly.	40	6		Iron	Domestic	do		
191	do		John H. Wilkes	Hill			60		10		3	6		Hard	Stables	do	2.20	
192	do	North Grosvenordale.	Grosvenor Dale Co.	Valley	15	275	290		4	Pumping lowers.	60	8 / 6		do	Drinking	do		
193	do	do	Mauritz Nelson	Slope	0	53	53	33		Dries	2	6		do	General	do		
194	do	Willsonville	Jos. Brault	Hill	7	39	46		10		6	6			do	do	4.00	
195	Torrington		S. A. Hermann	do	35	79	114	112	6	Constant	10	6	50	Med. soft, iron.	Cooking, stock.	Granite	3.00	
196	do		Excelsior Needle Co.	Valley	43	540	583	500–583	8	Pumping lowers to 250 feet.	25	6		Hard	Drinking	do		

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Records of wells in crystalline rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth of rock.	Depth of well.	Depth of principal source.	Depth to water.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter.	Temperature.	Quality.	Use.	Rock in which well is drilled.	Cost per foot.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*				
197	Torrington		Thos. J. Stone	Valley plain	23	75	98	65	8	Lowers to 30 feet.	16	6		Soft	Manufacturing mineral waters.	Granite	
198	do		Torrington Mfg. Co.	Valley	50	54	104	90	9		20	6	55		Factory, drinking.	do	
199	Trumbull		N. B. Curtis	Small elevation	18	32	50	48	8	Seasonal		6		Hard	Domestic	Schist or granodiorite.	$4.00
200	do		E. S. Fairchild	Ridge	30	45	75	50	0	Pumping lowers to 40 feet.	Good.	6		Soft	Domestic, boiler.	do	
201	do		Thos. L. Wade	Slope	16	69	85	75	25	Pumping lowers.		6		do	Domestic	Schist or gneiss.	4.00
*202	Vernon	Rockville	B. L. Burr	Hill	6	54	60	58	46	do	Good.	6		do	Drinking	Gneiss	
203	do	do	Horace G. Holt		25	7	32					6		Hard	do	do	2.50
204	do	Talcottville	Talcott Bros	Slope	97	230	327		32	Pumping lowers.	7				Domestic	do	
205	Voluntown		John N. Lewis	do	17	33½	50½	50	13	Constant	10	6	44	Soft	General	Granite	
206	do		do	Flat			50	49	13	do	15	6		do	Domestic	do	3.00
207	Washington		Dr. H. H. Hartwell.	Slope	5	60	65		5		2		48			Schist	
208	Waterbury		Waterbury Brass Co.	Valley	80	80	160	160	13	Pumping lowers somewhat.	150	8, 6		Hard	Drinking, general.	Gneiss or schist.	4.00
209	do		Platt Bros	do	10	74	93	80	8	Pumping lowers.		6	54	do	Cooling	do	
210	do		Valentine Bohl Co.	Slope	60	120	180		9	Constant with slow pumping.	35	6	52	Med	do	do	
211	do		Waterbury Machine Co.	Valley	48	141	189	185	30	Constant	20	6	52	Hard	Drinking, washing.	do	
212	do		Jean Jacques	do	0	65	65	55	2	Pumping lowers.	4	6	50	Soft	Manufacturing ginger ale.	do	
213	do		Waterbury Mfg. Co.	Slope	20	330	350	300	3		3½	8, 6			Drinking	Granite	3.00

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214	do		Franklin H. Kalbfleisch Co.		50	36	86	27	27	Pumping lowers 2 feet.		6	52-55	Hard	Cooling	do	
215	do		W. P. Jarrett	Hill	14	23	37		7		1				General	Gneiss, schist.	
216	do		do	do	10	32	42		7		1				do	do	
217	do		do	do	14	48	62		4		1				do	do	
218	do		do	do	20	11	31		11		4				do	do	
219	Waterford	Pleasure Beach	John O. Enders	Plain, elevation, 80 feet.	18	100	118	80	16	Pumping lowers.	6½	6		Soft	do	Granite	
220	do	do	Booth Bros	Plain	17	63	80			do		5			Boilers	do	
221	do		Fred C. Crowell	Slope	7	36	43	13	11		Good.	6		Hard	General	do	
222	do		Maj. H. A. Hull	Hill	58	15	73	40	12	Constant		6		Soft	do	Gneiss	
*223	do		Angeline W. Hill	do	6	45	51	35	26		Large.	6		do		do	
224	Westbrook		Mrs. J. H. Ripley	do	0	87	87			Pumps dry	Small.	6		Iron	Domestic	do	
225	do		A. C. Knothe	do	10	90	100		60		5	5		Soft	do	do	
226	do		R. H. Stannard	do	3	47	50	45 50	4			6				do	
*227	Westport		Atlantic Starch Works.	Valley	34	181	215	48 200		Pumping lowers to 15 feet.	60	8 6	50	Hard	Factory (not boilers).	do	
228	do	Greens Farm	Dr. Graham Hammond.		30	118	148	20			5					Schist	
229	do	Saugatuck	A. W. Smith	Hilltop	15	79	94	35	30		15	6	54		None	do	
230	Wilton		J. C. Berringer		16	10	26		10	Seasonal		36		Soft	Domestic	Granodiorite.	
231	Winchester	Winsted	L. J. Comstock				102		Flows		2½	6		Med	Domestic, stock.		
232	Windham		Holland Mfg. Co.	Valley	5	95	100		4	Pumps dry		6				Gneiss	
233	Woodbridge		Geo. D. Watrous	Hill			75		15		Small.	6			Domestic	Phyllite	
234	do		Edwin Judge	Valley	0	15	15	12	7	Seasonal		24		Hard	do	Slate, schist	
235	do		Wm. Peck	Hill	15	15	30		10	do		48		Soft	do	Slaty schist	
236	do		W. J. Lum	Slope	20	44	64	54	12		1½	6		do	Domestic, stock.	Chlorite schist.	2.35
237	do		J. T. Newton	do	9	141	150		Flows 1½	Slight seasonal.		6	52		Sale	do	

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Additional records of wells in crystalline rock of Connecticut.

[Furnished by C. L. Grant.]

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Depth of well.	Depth to water.	Yield per minute.	Probable rock in which well is drilled.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Gallons.*	
1	Andover		R. P. Chapman	60	38		Schist.
2	Bolton		Mrs. M. C. Baker	105	11	28	Granite.
3	Branford	Stony Creek	Wm. F. Clark	60	28		Do.
4	do	do	Maltby, Stevens & Maltby	30	7		Do.
5	Bridgeport		Hutchinson, Pierce & Co	325	24	25	
6	do		Naugatuck Valley Ice Co	200	18	24	
7	do		F. Armstrong	135	3		
8	Bristol		Bristol Brass & Clock Co	100		30	Do.
10	Brooklyn		Brooklyn Cemetery	70	45		Gneiss.
11	do		S. H. Bowen	40	0	11	Do.
13	Canton	Collinsville	H. P. Chandler	20	1	18	Granite.
14	do	do	H. P. Reichert	30	10	3	Do.
15	Coventry	South Coventry	C. E. Rood	44	20		Gneiss.
16	do	do	Thos. Joyce	95	40	6	Do.
17	do	do	Martin Hughes	36	2		Do.
18	Griswold	Jewett City	A. Brown	40	30		Do.
19	do	do	Chas. Meech	57	0		Do.
20	Groton		Mrs. J. E. Keeney	51	15	6	Granite.
21	Mansfield		Edwin Reynolds	40	4	6	Schist.
22	Milford		W. M. Merwin & Sons	93	3	35	Do.
23	do		Chas. Coupland	90	9	7	Do.
24	do		D. E. Smith	58	21		Do.
25	do		Mrs. E. P. Smith	35		12	Do.
26	do		J. W. Kelly	100	24	18	Do.
27	Naugatuck		C. H. Hoffman	25	12		Granodiorite.
28	do		Olaf Swanson	31	18	3	Do.
29	New Canaan		Mrs. A. M. Bradley	253	11	40	Granite.
30	New London		N. L. Brewing Co	60	Flows.	110	Do.
31	Norwich		Thames Iron Works	61	5	30	Gneiss.
32	do		do	124	4	110	Do.
33	do		N. D. Sewin	50	3	4	Do.
34	do	Norwichtown	M. Cryer	30	12	7	Do.
35	Old Lyme	Lyme	R. S. Griswold	23	8		Granite.
36	do	do	do	42	20		Do.
37	Plainfield	Wauregan	Wauregan Mills Co	45	10		Gneiss.
38	do	do	do	158		40	Do.
39	do	do	Henry Woods	33	21		Gneiss or gravel.
40	do	do	Charles Carter	29		18	Do.
41	do	do	Nelson Willett	63	14	16	Do.
42	do	do	J. W. Atwood	55	20	18	Do.
43	do	Moosup	W. H. Wilson	36	0	5	Schist or gneiss.

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44	do	do	Joseph Potwin	175	56	8	Do.
45	do	do	do	89	24	12	Do.
46	do	do	do	125	35	10	Do.
47	do	do	Benj. Lamont	60	12	.....	Schist, gneiss, or gravel.
48	do	do	E. E. Salisbury	33	7	3	Do.
49	do	do	Rev. J. A. Creeden	29	1	18	Do.
50	do	do	J. A. Paine	40	14	3	Do.
51	do	do	Henry Daggett	60	5	5	Do.
52	Pomfret		Mrs. Gertrude Vinton	70	666	1	Do.
53	Seymour		Tingue Mfg. Co	129	34	60	Granite.
54	do		do	80	11	60	Do.
55	do		Joseph Reigel	110	29	11	Granite or schist.
56	do		Patrick Ryan	17	1	33	Do.
57	do		Jas. Swan	57	10	6	Do.
58	Stamford		Dennis Beach	130	11	25	Do.
59	Sterling		G. Anderson	45	15	9	Do.
60	Thompson		Henry Elliott	46	.....	2	Do.
61	Vernon	Rockville	N. E. Engineering Co	80	.....	25	Gneiss.
62	Waterbury		Wm. H. Smith	160	14	35	Gneiss or schist.
63	do		Mr. Fitzsimmons	60	28	5	Do.
64	do		Waterbury Clock Co	500	29	7	Do.

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NOTES.

2. Penetrated 20 feet of loam and hardpan, 10 feet of soft rock, 20 feet of hard rock, and 46 feet of soft pulpy micaceous rock. Water was obtained in the soft micaceous rock. (See fig. 14.)

7. Dug and blasted 28 feet and drilled 22½ feet. Passed through 2 feet of loam, 12 feet of till with a 1-foot layer of iron-cemented material, 14 feet of disintegrated rock, and 22½ feet of hard rock.

10. Water salty on first being pumped but becomes fresh with continued pumping.

18. In drilling, considerable amounts of water were encountered in the sand and gravel above the rock. This water was cased out and a small amount was found at a depth of 25 feet in the granite, and additional supplies, increasing in small amounts, were found down to a depth of 150 feet. Below this point no new supplies were encountered, although the total depth of the well is 315 feet. The material penetrated was as follows: Sand and gravel, 50 feet; granite, 100 feet; clay and gravel (probably disintegrated rock marking a shear zone), 20 feet; soft white micaceous rock followed by granite varying in hardness every few feet (probably gneiss).

45 and **46.** Maj. William Spittle has furnished the following information: One well was drilled to a depth of 425 feet through 12 feet of clay till and 413 feet of granitic rock, of nearly the same character for the entire depth, probably a gneissoid granite. Water first began to flow over the surface at 335 feet from the top and continued to increase slowly in the amount of flow and in the height of the rise above the surface with increasing depth. At present the water will rise at least 7 feet above the surface of the well in a ¾-inch pipe. In five months' continuous flowing the volume of water decreased from 4 to 3 gallons a minute. When pumped the well yielded 50 gallons a minute and the water level was lowered to 80 feet below the surface and remained steady. The second well was sunk 130 feet away and at an elevation 4 feet higher to a depth of 503 feet. This well yields 25 gallons a minute, but the water stands at a level 15 feet below the surface. The pumping of the second well did not affect the yield of the first.

75. Mr. H. B. King has furnished information regarding five wells drilled for the Aspinook Company at Jewett City. They are from 15 to 100 feet apart and from 30 to 60 feet in depth, all penetrating 6 to 8 feet of sand and gravel. They are located on a hillside at varying elevations. These wells each average 20 gallons a minute and are all connected to a siphon which conducts the water to the mill at an elevation about 75 feet lower than the wells. Two of these wells, 15 feet apart, affect each other's yield, but the remaining wells are apparently independent of one another.

80. A small stream of water was encountered at 83 feet from the surface, and at 180 feet a stream of 1 gallon a minute; below this there was no increase in supply to a depth of 530 feet.

82. At a depth of 32 feet this well yielded 1 gallon a minute and at 38 feet 4 gallons a minute. The last 10 feet of the well gave no increase of supply.

97. Filling, 5.5 feet; silt, 5 feet; coarse gravel, 13.5 feet; coarse sand, 36 feet; hardpan, 13 feet; gneiss, 62 feet; granite or hard gneiss, 25 feet; slate, 5 feet; granite or hard gneiss, 5.5 feet. The total depth of the well is 170.5 feet. (See fig. 14.)

108. On the slope of a hill near the base of which are numerous springs. The water is siphoned from the well to tenement houses below. In dry seasons the level of water in the well drops 2 feet.

132. Drilled on a small island in Long Island Sound. A trace of fresh water was obtained at 125 feet, hut the remaining supply was salty.

133. Fresh water was obtained at a depth of 60 feet, evidently from gravel deposits, but salt water was encountered in the rock seams below this point. The well was plugged below 60 feet and the fresh water from the gravel is utilized.

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144. No water was found in the first 100 feet. In the next 70 feet a small amount was obtained, possibly 40 gallons a day, and the water stood at a level 107 feet below the surface. The well was drilled to a depth of 250 feet and an excellent supply obtained at 230 feet below the surface. Information furnished by H. B. King, the driller.

157. The water comes from the contact of the overlying clay and the solid rock. No water was found in the rock, which is a quartzite schist, although 365 feet of rock were penetrated.

170. The following log is furnished by the driller, A. J. Corcoran: Solid clay, 15 feet; clay and small stones (till), 10 feet; dark gravelly material, 46 feet; loose blocks of rock, 29 feet; soft and dry decomposed rock, 10 feet; hard rock, 5 feet. A small yield of water, 2 gallons a minute, was found at a depth of 30 feet, but no more was encountered until the last 5 feet of hard rock was penetrated, when a supply of 15 gallons a minute was obtained. (See fig. 14.)

176. Water was found in the superficial drift, but was lost on encountering a dry seam in the rock.

202. A good supply of water was obtained at a depth of 25 feet, but this flowed off at 45 feet, and when water was struck again at 60 feet it rose to this point and flowed off in the open rock seam.

223. At 35 feet the well pumped 100 gallons an hour and the water rose within 16 feet of the surface. A second and very large supply was encountered at a depth of 51 feet and the level of the water dropped to 25 feet below the surface.

227. Penetrated 34 feet of gravel and bowlders and 41 feet of micaceous rock, in which a little fresh water was found at 38 feet below the surface and a large flow of slightly salt water at 48 feet below the surface. The rest of the well was through a rock described as gray and yellow sandstone (probably schist). At 200 feet very salt water was encountered, but this is held back by a plug. (See fig. 14.)

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS.

PERCENTAGE OF FAILURE OF WELLS.

Wells in crystalline rocks are unlike most other wells, in that it is impossible to predict their success or failure, even when numerous wells have been sunk previously in the same locality. For this reason a well driller will rarely guarantee to obtain water from such a well, although occasionally water is guaranteed and an additional price per foot charged to offset the driller's risk of failure.

When a well is considered a failure the fault lies either with the quality or with the quantity of the water obtained. It is a very exceptional well in which no water supply is obtained in the rock. Nearly all wells encounter some water in the surface material above the rock, but it is common for the drill to penetrate 30 or 40 feet of rock, and occasionally even 100 feet, without obtaining enough water in the rock to keep the drillings wet, so that water must be poured in at the top to allow the drilling to continue. Although no satisfactory data are at hand regarding the number of wells which have failed to obtain any water, it is certain that the number is very small. Among 237 wells only 3, or 1.25 per cent, are recorded as obtaining no water. Drillers are naturally averse to giving infor-

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mation regarding unsuccessful wells which they have sunk, but the available information indicates that, though dry wells are uncommon, there are a considerable number of wells in which the yield of water has been less than 2 gallons a minute. For certain purposes, such as manufacturing, this small supply would be considered a failure, but for domestic use where the water is obtained by a hand pump or windmill a supply of this amount is generally sufficient. Among 134 wells whose yield is known, only 17, about 12.5 per cent, furnish less than 2 gallons a minute. It is probably a conservative estimate to state that not less than 90 per cent of the wells sunk in the crystalline rocks have given supplies of sufficient amount for the use required.

The greater number of unsuccessful wells in regard to quality are located along the coast or on tidal rivers, where the well supplies are affected by sea water. When a well is within a few hundred feet of salt sea water, it sometimes happens that salty or brackish water is obtained, although perfectly fresh water is yielded by other wells in similar locations. Six wells are recorded in which the water has been contaminated in this way and others, regarding which definite information is lacking, are known to have been failures for the same reason. It is certain that a large percentage of wells near salt water have yielded brackish water and any well sunk in rock on a small island or within 500 feet of the sea is likely to afford an unsatisfactory supply. As nearly as can be estimated from present information, the chances of failure for such wells are between one in four and one in three.

When there is a choice of several locations, the well should be as far as possible from the sea and at as high elevation as convenient. Several wells that have been ruined by the entrance of salt water are situated on old salt marshes or on filled ground that is but slightly elevated above tide level. In the quarry at Millstone Point, near New London, which is about 150 feet from the sea, brackish water enters through the horizontal seams in the upper part of the quarry wall nearest the Sound. The rock outcrops in the sea and the open seams have abundant opportunity to absorb salt water.

VARIATIONS IN YIELD AND DEPTH.

The depths and yields of wells vary widely within very small areas. When considered collectively, as in the table on page 102, it is seen that there is an average increase in the amount of water obtained with increase in depth of the wells. It is often found, however, that of two wells sunk within 100 feet of each other in the same kind of rock, one will obtain a plentiful supply of water while the other may be sunk to twice the depth and obtain only one-tenth the amount. This is a typical case which nearly every Connecticut well

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driller will present in one form or another when information regarding his drilling experiences is requested.

This variation within short distances is due to the varied occurrence of the water-bearing fractures considered on the previous pages. One well may be sunk in a portion of the rock in which the fractures are numerous and closely spaced or it may intersect a large open fracture; the second well, only 100 feet away, may be located in an area of widely spread fractures or it may intersect only fractures with closely compressed walls and consequently can obtain only a meager water supply. Owing to the general steep pitch of joint planes, there would be little chance of two wells intersecting the same fracture, although they might possibly intersect connecting fractures and in this way affect each other's yield. Even where two wells intersect connecting fractures at the same depth, the yield of the two wells would probably be different, owing to differences in the opening of the fractures.

LIMIT OF DEPTH FOR WELLS IN CRYSTALLINE ROCKS.

Although the well records given on pages 78–89 show that supplies of water have been obtained at all depths from 15 feet to 800 feet, the largest percentage of failures is among the wells more than 400 feet in depth. The reasons for the increasing probability of failure with increasing depth are indicated in the discussion of joints (pp. 61–64), where it is shown that increased depth means a decrease in number and a tightening of joints. Increased depth usually means an increase in the cost per foot, as drilling is necessarily slower and consequently more expensive at considerable depths. Owing to the great length of rope and the necessity of waiting for the recoil of the stretched rope fewer blows can be struck per minute and there is also greater danger of losing the drilling tools.

In view of the increasing cost and the decreasing probability of finding water-bearing seams with increasing depth, and of the great variation in water-bearing fractures within very short distances, it seems manifest that if a well is unsuccessful within a certain depth the best policy is to abandon the well and start a new one at some distance from the first. In one place a well was abandoned in this manner and a second and successful one sunk by simply turning the rig around and drilling a hole less than 20 feet away. It is always preferable, however, to move as far away from the first well as possible.

In deciding at what depth an unsuccessful well should be abandoned a number of factors must be taken into consideration, but an estimate that will prove of value may be made from the available well records. The table on page 100 shows that the average depth

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of the wells varies considerably for different rocks. The average depth in rock of 163 wells is 88.8 feet and the average total depth, including the surface material overlying the rock, is 108.4 feet. About 90 per cent of the wells are under 300 feet in depth and 82 per cent under 200 feet. In many of the wells which have gone below 250 feet the main supply and in several the entire supply has come from seams less than 250 feet in depth. From a study of the recorded wells it would appear, therefore, that if a well has penetrated 250 feet of rock without success the best policy is to abandon it and sink in another location. For wells in granodiorite, which have been successful at an average greater depth than in other rocks, this depth might be somewhat too small, but for wells in other rocks it is possible that a maximum depth of 200 feet should be adopted.

The wells that penetrate 200 feet or less of rock show a rather regular increase in yield of water with increasing depth, but in deeper wells than this the tendency is toward a smaller average yield owing to the failure of many of the wells. The average yield of 123 wells in the crystalline rocks is 12.7 gallons a minute, and as their average depth is 108 feet the cost of the average well for this yield of water at $4.25 a foot is $459.

QUALITY OF WATER.

A general discussion of the chemical composition of well waters and a number of analyses of well waters derived from crystalline rocks may be found on pages 166–168, 176–179. The general quality of water from these rocks is excellent and they are well adapted to boiler use.

TEMPERATURE OF WATER.

The temperature of the water is entirely dependent on the depth from which it comes. In wells less than 50 feet deep the water will show variations in temperature agreeing in a modified form with the seasonal changes. In wells more than 50 feet in depth the temperature of the water increases at the rate of about 1° to every 60 feet of depth. The average temperature of the water of 49 wells in the crystalline rocks is 50.5° F. The average annual temperature of Connecticut is 47° F.

LOCATION OF WELLS.

So many factors are involved in considering the location of a well that it is impossible to lay down any set rule for choosing a location. Before sinking a well it is always advisable to find out what wells have been sunk in the vicinity and what success they have had. The list of well records on pages 78–89 gives all the information at hand, although there are probably as many more wells in Connecticut regarding which no information has been obtained.

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In localities where, owing to limited space or other factors, there is only one place where a well can be sunk, the only questions to be considered are the possibility of obtaining a satisfactory supply and the probable cost. For such wells the information embodied in this report should be of considerable value.

Where there is a choice of situations for the well the following points should be considered. The well should be as far removed from contaminating influences as possible. This is particularly important for wells near sea water. (See p. 174.) It is better to sink the well where there is a heavy covering of surface material rather than on a bare rock ledge. If there are rock exposures near by, a study of the joints may be of assistance in locating the well so as to intersect possible water-bearing fractures.

The Aspinook Company, at Jewett City, has adopted a very successful scheme which doubtless could be used in many other places. The mill is located below a hill and a series of wells were sunk on the hillside at a considerable elevation above the mill. The water is obtained by means of a siphon and a very considerable pumping expense is thus saved. The same method has been adopted for individual wells elsewhere and has proved satisfactory.

In order that a siphon may be used, the water level must be not more than 30 feet from the surface and the lower end of the siphon pipe or the escape valve must be at an elevation lower than the water level. The average depth from the surface of the ground to the water level in the recorded wells is 19 feet on hills and 15 feet on slopes. The water level will of course lower to some extent when water is drawn out and the degree of lowering will be proportional to the volume of water removed, but in many wells the lowering will not be sufficient to affect the use of the siphon. The greatest certainty of success will be on hillsides where there is a covering of clay or hardpan and where there are no outcrops of rock showing above the surface at elevations lower than the top of the well.

The wells located on hills average less in cost than those in valleys, owing to the greater depth of the valley wells, as shown in the table on page 102; but the average yield of wells on hills and in valleys is nearly the same.

CONSTANCY OF YIELD.

The wells appear to maintain a remarkably constant yield from year to year. Although the drilling of wells in the crystalline rocks is a comparatively new venture and almost all of these wells have been sunk in the last three years, no well in which water was obtained has failed to yield a supply on continued use. In very shallow wells dry seasons have marked some decrease in supply, but the decrease has been small and only temporary. In a number of wells the sup-

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ply has increased after continued pumping, probably owing to the removal of material lodged in the rock crevices, which are cleaned out by the running water.

In some wells supplies obtained at short distances below the surface have been lost with deeper sinking, an open dry crevice struck at a lower level allowing the water to run off. Such occurrences are unusual and are found at relatively shallow depths. During the drilling of any well it is usual to find a number of fractures supplying water. Often the water derived from small sources will stand at a certain level in the well and when the main supply is struck will rise or fall, depending on the height at which the water stands in the main crevice. There will of course be an equalizing between the various supplying fractures. If the well penetrates one saturated fracture in which the water stands at 10 feet below the top of the well and a second fracture in which the water stands at 30 feet below the top, the water level in the well will occupy an intermediate point somewhere between 10 and 30 feet below the surface.

FLOWING WELLS.

The question is often asked regarding the possibility of obtaining flowing wells in Connecticut. A number of flowing wells have been obtained in the sandstone area in the central and northern portions of the State, but a flowing well in crystalline rocks is a very unusual occurrence. Information has been obtained regarding six wells in the Connecticut crystalline areas in which the water has maintained a constant flow over the top for some time and several wells are known in which the water has flowed over the surface for a few minutes but has eventually lowered to a level below the mouth of the well.

The occurrence of flowing wells is therefore common enough to demand an explanation. Four of these wells have been personally visited and the position of the others is known approximately. Each of the wells is located on the side slope of a hill or in a small valley where there is a considerable elevation back of the well. One well at Greenwich is on a very gently sloping surface so that it appears to be at the top of the hill, but in reality the ground rises gradually to an elevation at least 40 feet higher than the well. All the wells are in markedly glaciated areas, where there is a considerable thickness of clay till overlying the rock, and there are no neighboring rock outcrops except at one flowing well called the Buttress Dyke Spring, near New Haven. This well is in an area of schistose rock where the hill back of the well exhibits numerous outcrops, but there are no rock ledges showing at elevations lower than the well.

From the study of the individual wells and of the general occurrence of water in rock fractures, it is concluded that the artesian conditions

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A. FLOWING WELL AT NOROTON HEIGHTS.

B. WEATHERING DUE TO GROUND WATER IN GRANITE QUARRY.

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giving rise to flowing wells in Connecticut are due solely to the capping of clay till above the rock and that this capping is sufficiently impervious to prevent the water escaping from the rock crevices, at least with sufficient freedom to destroy the artesian head. The water occupying the rock seams is under hydrostatic pressure owing to its confinement on the sloping hillside, and, an easy escape being offered by the open well, the water rises to the surface. It is probable that the joints that give rise to the flowing wells are more nearly at right angles to the slope of the hillside than parallel to it. The same conditions might arise where the joints have a pitch parallel to the surface slope and a very low inclination, but the pitch of most of the joints is so steep that they would intersect the surface so near the well as to give little or no head to the water.

As far as water supply is concerned, flowing wells need not be considered as of any particular importance in Connecticut. In the first place it is impossible to predict that a well will flow, even though the most favorable location be chosen. At Noroton Heights two wells were sunk within 150 feet of each other in the same kind of location, one of which flowed 7 feet above the surface, while in the other the water rose only within 15 feet of the top. Second, the flow at each of the flowing wells has been small, from 1 to 4 gallons a minute. This supply is too small for the use made of it at most of the wells and pumping machinery has been installed. The wells have yielded unusually large supplies when pumped, but the level of the water has sunk to a considerable distance below the surface. It is not known whether the wells would again flow if pumping were stopped. (See Pl. III, *A*.)

It is probable that in the wells which flowed for only a few minutes after being struck the water then found an escape through open dry fractures in the upper portion of the well, as the water level dropped to several feet below the surface.

WELLS IN VARYING ROCK TYPES.

A study of joints and other rock fractures indicates that these structures vary with varying rock types, and as the water supply of wells is directly dependent on the fractures it is to be expected that there will be corresponding variations of supply in the wells in the different rock varieties. These variations are discussed below. The records on which the discussion is based are not as complete as might be desired, but are sufficiently numerous to have considerable weight.

Wells in granite.—It has been shown that the fractures particularly characteristic of granite masses are the nearly horizontal joints which in general run parallel to the surface of the ground. These joints are manifestly of considerable importance in the transmission and storage of water, but it is doubtful whether they are sources of

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large supply to wells. In granite quarries where the horizontal joints are well developed, the greater portion of the water entering the quarry comes through these flat joints. Owing to their parallelism to the surface these joints are not in a suitable position to receive water from the material overlying the rock, and must get their main supply of water from that descending through the vertical joints. In the quarry walls the largest amount of water escapes and the heaviest decomposition of the rock occurs near the major vertical joints, indicating that the vicinity of such joints is the place of greatest water circulation.

As a well sunk in granite must pass through a large number of horizontal seams, which are far more abundant in the upper 50 feet of rock than in the next 50 feet, it would appear that if these seams were saturated and could yield good water supplies the granite wells should furnish unusually large supplies at comparatively shallow depths.

The records show, however, that the wells in granite yield about the same as those in gneiss and schist, and that although their average depth is 10 per cent less than that of the wells in gneiss it is slightly greater than the average of the schist wells. The natural inference to be drawn is that though the number of contributing fractures to any one well is much greater in granite than in the other two main rock types, the total yield of the well is no greater than the amount furnished by the vertical joints to the horizontal joints.

In granite the vertical joints are more irregular and probably more widely spaced than in the other rock types, but they are well connected with one another by the intersecting horizontal joints. The contributing area to a granite well should occupy a space with an approximately uniform radius around the well.

Wells in schist and gneiss.—Little difference can be distinguished between the occurrence of joints in schist and that in gneiss, and in fact the two rocks grade into each other so completely that it is in some places difficult to say whether a rock is a schist or a gneiss.

The marked development of horizontal joints characteristic of granite is lacking in these rocks, and the more regular character of the vertical joints tends to produce a different manner of circulation through the rock. A single well, instead of drawing water from an area surrounding it on all sides, will draw from long distances through the feeding fractures and the vertical fractures connecting with them.

The wells in schist and gneiss have nearly the same average yield, but those in gneiss average 15 per cent deeper than those in schist. It is possible that the supply for the wells in schist comes not only through the joints but also through fissility openings or small fractures parallel to the schistosity. Such fractures are common near

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the surface, and owing to their inclination might well absorb considerable volumes of water. Because of the small size and lack of continuity of these openings they would yield water very slowly to the well, but might give an important amount in the aggregate. The derivation of a supply through such openings, which would have their greatest development near the surface, would account for the relative shallowness of wells in schist.

That fractures parallel to the schistosity may be important carriers of water is well shown on the east bank of Connecticut River above Hadlyme Landing, where there is a long exposure of fissile schist and a number of small springs issue from partings parallel to the schistosity.

Wells in quartzite schist.—In the northeastern portion of the State there is an important development of a rock which is a schist but is unlike most of the schists of Connecticut and will be treated separately. This rock is an altered quartzite and consists very largely of quartz grains with a very small percentage of other minerals. No study was made of the fractures in this rock, but information has been obtained regarding five wells which were drilled in it, three of which are more than 300 feet in depth and one more than 200 feet. In each one the supply has been very small and unsatisfactory. Though the number of these wells is small, the evidence indicates that the rock is a very unreliable source of water supply and that the fractures are few or poorly developed.

Wells in phyllite.—Near Woodbridge and at Woodmont several wells have been drilled in a greenish slaty rock or phyllite in which the supplies have proved very unsatisfactory. The cleavage of the rock is nearly vertical, causing difficulty in drilling, and most of the fractures appear to be filled by some cementing mineral matter. The wells that have been drilled in this rock are comparatively shallow, but the water obtained has been so universally poor that the probability of getting a satisfactory supply appears to be very slight.

Wells in limestone.—Comparatively few wells have been drilled in the limestone area in the western part of the State, where springs are so numerous as to constitute far the most important source of water supply. The limestone itself is largely recrystallized and changed to a marble. It is dolomitic in part, but unlike many dolomites is compact and contains very little pore space.

The fracturing is very thorough and in fact so complete that it has been found impossible to obtain blocks for building purposes large enough to warrant quarrying. The limestone is traversed throughout by irregular fractures which divide it into a series of comparatively small blocks. Solution is very effective in limestone, as the calcium carbonate constituting the bulk of the rock is readily soluble in water containing carbon dioxide. No large solution caverns, such as

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are typical of many limestones, have been found in the Connecticut limestones, but the fractures generally have decomposed borders several inches wide and are sufficiently enlarged to offer easy passage to water.

Wells should be very successful in this rock, but because of its highly fractured condition water passes through it rapidly and the level of the water in the wells will probably be at a greater distance below the surface than in rocks of other types.

Wells in granodiorite.—In the vicinity of Stamford and Greenwich the wells drilled in schistose granodiorite have met with a considerable degree of success. The rock outcrops in this area show a well-developed and rather closely spaced jointing which is nearly at right angles to the schistose structure of the rock. There is no apparent reason why the wells in this rock should differ from those in schist and gneiss, but the average depth and average yield are much greater. It is possible that especially large supplies have been required in this locality and that for this reason the smaller supplies in the upper portion of the rock have been insufficient and the wells have been drilled until a large supply was struck.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

TABLE 1.—*Yields of water at varying depths in the rock below the covering of surface material.*

["Vol."=average yield in gallons per minute; "No."=number of records from which the average is taken.]

Depth in feet	0–30		30–50		50–70		70–90		90–110	
	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.
Schist	3.2	2	.....	.....	9.5	4	21.6	3	22.1	6
Granite	7	1	6.7	9	9.8	5	20.5	2	14.4	8
Gneiss	1	1	11.9	13	12.4	14	7.6	7	5.5	2
Granodiorite	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8.0	.....	0	1
Quartzite schist	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6.0	1	.....	.....
Average	3.6	4	9.75	22	11.3	23	12.4	14	15.2	17

Depth in feet	110–200		200–300		300–400		400–500		500–650	
	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.	Vol.	No.
Schist	8.5	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	0	1	.....	.....
Granite	13	5	16	3	0	1	50	1	.....	.....
Gneiss	8.3	8	33.0	2	22.0	2	.....	.....	14.0	2
Granodiorite	46.0	6	10.7	3	2	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Quartzite schist	.....	.....	0	1	2	1	.....	.....	7	2
Average	20.2	21	16.7	9	11.5	4	26.0	5	5.2	4

NOTE.—The information at hand shows no relation between the depth of the surface drift and the yield or success of wells.

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TABLE 2.—*Yield of wells more than 400 feet deep, with reference to topographic position.*

Location.	Depth in feet.	Yield (gallons per minute).
Valleys	583	25
	690	[a] 10
	503	28
	425	50
Hills	850	40
	548	Poor.
	420	2
	486	Dry.
Slopes	610	12
	645	4
Island	1,465	[b] 3

[a] All water obtained at 120 feet. [b] Salty.

TABLE 3.—*Average yield of wells in various locations.*

Location.	Average yield (gallons per minute.	Number of records.
Valleys	24.4	18
Hills	20.6	27
Slopes	8.7	25
Plains	18.8	9

TABLE 4.—*Relation of average yield of wells in various topographic locations to average yield of wells in any rock type and in any location.*

[Yield in gallons per minute.]

Rock.	Location.	Relation of average yield of wells in any location to average yield of all wells in same kind of rock.			Relation of average yield of wells in any location to average yield of all wells in same kind of location.		
		Average yield for location.	Average yield for rock type.	Difference.	Average yield for location.	Average yield for all in similar location.	Difference.
Granite	Hills	9.3	17.4	− 8.1	9.3	20.6	−11.3
	Slopes	10.3	17.4	− 7.1	10.3	8.7	+ 1.6
	Valleys	21.7	17.4	+ 4.3	21.7	24.4	− 2.7
Schist	Hills	26.5	17.0	+ 9.5	26.5	20.6	+ 5.9
	Slopes	4.7	17.0	−12.3	4.7	8.7	− 4
	Valleys	10.0	17.0	− 7	10	24.4	−14.4
Gneiss	Hills	21.8	17.0	+ 4.8	21.8	20.6	+ 1.2
	Slopes	10.1	17.0	− 6.9	10.1	8.7	+ 1.4
	Valleys	24.3	17.0	+ 7.3	24.3	24.4	− .1
Other crystalline rocks	Hills	24.7	26.4	−11.7	21.7	20.6	+ 1.1
	Slopes	2.2	26.4	−24.2	2.2	8.7	− 6.5
	Valleys	42.5	26.4	+16.1	42.5	24.4	+18.1

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TABLE 5.—*Relation of level at which water stands in wells in various locations to surface of rock which marks bottom of overlying drift.*

Rock.	Location.	Percentage of wells in which water level is below rock surface.	Percentage of wells in which water level is above rock surface.	Percentage of wells in which water level is even with rock surface.
Granite	Hills	37	50	13
	Valleys	11	89	0
	Slopes	41	50	8
	Plains	50	50	0
Schist	Hills	62.5	37.5	0
	Valleys	0	100	0
	Slopes	50	33	17
Gneiss	Hills	69	21	10
	Valleys	22	78	0
	Slopes	44	36	20
	Plains	0	50	50
Granodiorite	Hills	71	0	29
	Valleys	0	100	0
	Slopes	60	40	0
	Plains	33	67	0

NOTE.—A summary of the results for all wells may be found on page 133.

TABLE 6.—*Average depth and yield of wells in varying rock types.*

Rock.	Depth of surface material.		Depth in rock.		Total depth.		Yield.	
	Feet.	Number of records.	Feet.	Number of records.	Feet.	Number of records.	Gallons per minute.	Number of records.
Granite	20.6	45	100.5	45	122.5	54	13.0	35
Gneiss	16.3	69	112.6	70	131.4	73	12.3	50
Schist (other than quartzite schist)	13.7	23	96.0	23	109.7	23	13.9	16
Granodiorite	24.1	15	138.5	15	156.6	19	33.0	13
Quartzite schist	32.5	3	411.0	3	443.5	3	7.25	3
Phyllite (slate)	14.4	5	80.2	5	93.8	5	Very poor.	5

TABLE 7.—*Average depth from surface to water level in the well.*

Location.	Depth to water.	Number of records.
	Feet.	
Hills	19	76
Valleys	11	30
Slopes	15	44
Plains	8	30

TABLE 8.—*Average depths, in feet, of surface material, of rock, and of the entire well for the records at hand, exclusive of wells more than 400 feet in depth and of wells known to be dry.*

Location.	Average depth of surface material.	Average depth in rock.	Average total depth.	Number of records.[a]
Valleys	36	104.5	140.5	26
Hills	17	94.0	111.0	67
Slopes	21	79.4	100.4	54
Plains	10	74.0	84.0	16

[a] Average depth of surface material based on only 122 records.

NOTE.—Average total depth of all these wells is 108.4 feet.

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It is clearly shown in Table 1 that there is an increase in the average yield of wells with increase in depth to a certain point, beyond which the average yield tends to decrease, owing mainly to the larger proportionate number of the deep wells that prove to be failures. The table also indicates that most of the wells are between 30 and 200 feet in depth. The wells in granite are evenly distributed over a considerable range in depth, but most of the wells in gneiss are shallow, 70 per cent being less than 100 feet deep. The wells in granodiorite whose records are available are mostly in the schistose area near Stamford, and the data indicate that in this rock good supplies of water are obtained at considerable depth.

Table 8 indicates that the impression of well drillers that wells obtain water at shallower depths on hills than in valleys is borne out by the facts, but that the greater part of the difference is due to the heavier deposits of surficial drift in the valleys. On the other hand, it is shown in Table 3 that the average yield of wells in valleys is somewhat greater than that of wells on hills. If there were any relation between the yield of wells and their topographic situation it would seem that wells located on slopes should give an average yield intermediate between that of the wells on hills and that of the wells in valleys. On the contrary, the wells on slopes average a yield less than half of that for either of the other locations and the wells on slopes are also the shallowest of the three groups.

Table 5 shows that the ground water in wells in granite has an occurrence differing from that in the other rock types, the position of the water level with reference to the rock surface being the reverse in wells on hills and slopes to that in the other rocks, though in the wells in valleys the same relation is shown by all rock types.

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CHAPTER V.

GROUND WATER IN TRIASSIC SANDSTONES AND TRAPS.

INTRODUCTION.

The bed rock of Connecticut, as is shown on the map (fig. 11), consists of two main types, widely separated in character and age—the pre-Triassic metamorphic crystalline rock and the Triassic sandstone, conglomerate, shale, and lava. In the sedimentary rocks and traps of the Triassic area the water occurs in four situations—within the rocks themselves, in bedding planes, in joints, and along fault lines.

WATER WITHIN THE ROCKS.

CONDITIONS OF OCCURRENCE.

No rock is so dense as to exclude water entirely. However firm and compact it may appear to be, there are spaces between the individual grains and crystals, of capillary size and larger, which, though invisible, allow access and movement of water. Though it is true that all rocks possess a capacity to hold water, yet the amount of available space varies within wide limits, in accordance with the character of the rock. In the crystalline rocks, composed of closely interlocking crystals, there is small space for water, and the densest known granite (from Montello, Wis.) has an average porosity of only 0.237 per cent, or about 1 part in 400. In sand the pores may constitute 30 to 40 per cent of the volume; in sandstone, 20 per cent or more. The sedimentary formations of Triassic age in Connecticut include sandstone, conglomerate, and shale, all of which have relatively large water capacity.

WATER IN SANDSTONE.

The prevailing sedimentary rock in Connecticut is sandstone, which varies in texture from coarse to fine and in color from chocolate brown to reddish brown, with local green and buff tints. Commercially the rock is known as "brownstone," and the quarries of Portland, Long Meadow, and other places have furnished a great amount of it for building purposes. The large outcrops of sandstone in Connecticut are generally not homogeneous, presenting as a rule wide variation in grain, conformity, order of stratification, and relative amounts of the component strata. Overlapping lenses of sand-

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stone, conglomerate, and shale, rather than uniform beds of sandstone, make up the formation. In one of the quarry pits at Portland four types of rock are sufficiently distinct to be separated for commercial purposes.

The Triassic sandstone of Connecticut consists of quartz, feldspar (in many localities kaolinized), biotite, muscovite, and garnet, with fragments of chlorite schist, mica schist, gneiss, and granite. The cement which holds the grains together and gives color to the rock is partly a film of iron oxide surrounding the grains and partly fine clay.

Sandstone in general has great water-holding capacity, and the Connecticut varieties form no exception. A sample from the Portland quarry which was dried carefully and then immersed in water for three months was found to have increased in weight during that time from 150 to 154 pounds,[a] an absorptive ratio of about one-fortieth of the weight of the specimen examined. The amount of water absorbed was about 2 quarts for every cubic foot, equivalent to 88,502,857 barrels for a square mile of rock 200 feet deep. This is sufficient water to form a lake 1 mile in diameter and 50 feet deep.

In spite of its capacity for holding such enormous quantities of water, the exposed portions of the sandstone usually appear dry. In railroad cuts and on cliffs the water is not seen to ooze out of the rock nor to form a film over its surface. It is only in artificial openings, such as wells, that the water drips from the rock itself. This absence of water on the face of a natural rock outcrop does not indicate that the rock is not saturated at a short distance back of the face, for the water within the rock would naturally seek a lower level of escape through some bedding plane or fracture nearer the base of the hill. In several localities springs issue from crevices immediately above which the rock is practically dry. In such localities the water table is depressed at the point of leakage.[b] (See fig. 15.) The depth to which saturated sandstone extends varies with the topographic location and character of the rock, but is in few places more than a few hundred feet. Wells are reported where the rock was so dry between depths of 200 and 300 feet that water had to be pumped into the hole to enable the drill to perform its work.

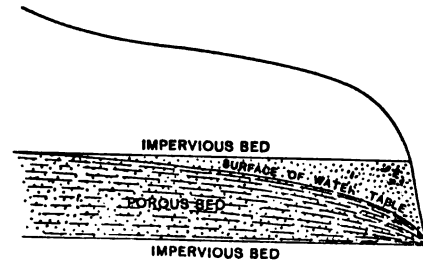

FIGURE 15.—Diagram illustrating depression of water surface at point of leakage in sandstone.

[a] Stone, vol. 9, 1894, p. 20.

[b] Fuller, M. L., Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 110, 1905, p. 98.

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WATER IN CONGLOMERATE.

Interbedded with the sandstones are lenses and short layers of conglomerate, and at several localities, as in the vicinity of New Haven and elsewhere along the Triassic border, this rock occurs in great abundance. The pebbles in the conglomerate average from 1 to 5 inches in diameter, but reach extremes of more than 2 feet. Conglomerate is cemented gravel, and the pebbles of which the Triassic conglomerate of Connecticut is composed are crystals of quartz, feldspar, and mica, together with partly rounded fragments of schist, gneiss, porphyries, granite, and pegmatite. The pebbles, large and small, lie in a matrix of sandstone. The cementing material and coloring matter are identical with those of the sandstones, except that there is perhaps a smaller amount of clay.

The conglomerate contains within itself abundant water, as its pore space is relatively large, but, like the sandstone, it seems to give up its water readily to joints and other large openings and to be relatively dry at great depths. The deep wells in the Connecticut Triassic area which have been failures—the Northampton well, 3,700 feet deep; the Westfield well, 1,100 feet; the Forestville well, 1,290 feet; and the Winchester Arms Company well at New Haven, 4,000 feet—are in the conglomerate. The easterly dip of the conglomerate along the west side of the Triassic area suggests conditions favorable for flowing wells, especially as the upturned edges of the strata are in a position to receive the water from the Western Highlands and to carry it eastward into the ground. These favorable conditions are, however, offset by the lack of continuity in the rock strata due to the presence of joints and faults. (See pp. 133–135.)

WATER IN SHALES.

The shales of the Connecticut Valley, popularly called "slate," do not cover wide areas to the exclusion of other rocks, but occur as beds or lentils interstratified with the sandstones, conglomerates, and lavas which make up the Triassic of the State. Typical shales are layers of mud that have become consolidated by the addition of cementing material and by the pressure of overlying rock masses. The fragments of which they are composed are largely grains of quartz, feldspar, and mica, either fresh or partly disintegrated, and the layers into which a shale outcrop is divided are usually but a fraction of an inch thick.

Pure mud shales contain a large amount of water, but the pore spaces are so small that they retain it with great tenacity and wells sunk in unbroken shale beds of homogeneous structure remain as holes with moistened sides but with an amount of water insufficient for practical purposes. The Triassic shales, however, are not homo-

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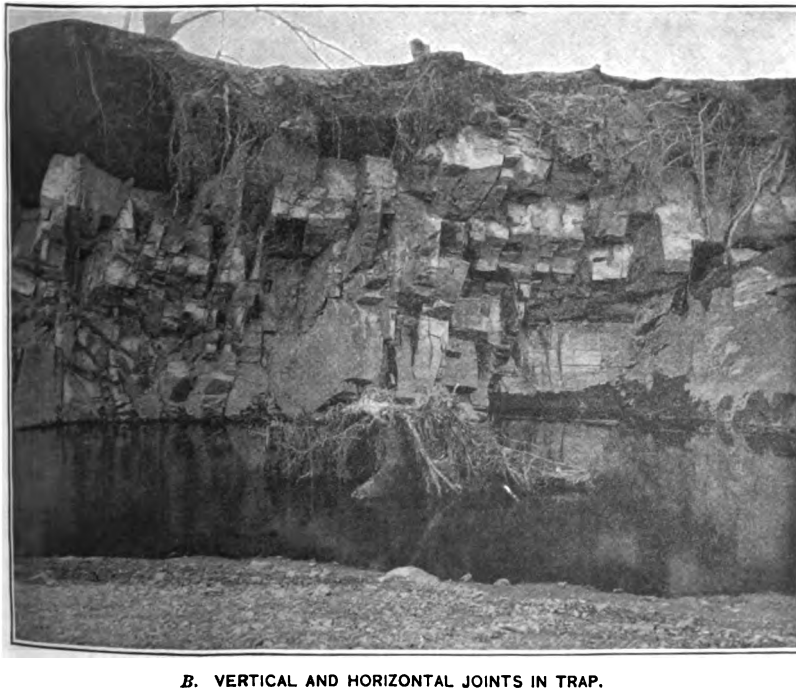
A. VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL JOINTS IN SANDSTONE.



B. VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL JOINTS IN TRAP.

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geneous layers of compressed mud and silt, but thin beds of shale alternating with sandstone, and much rock which passes for shale or "slate" is in reality a very fine grained sandstone of large water capacity. Furthermore, the shale contains some small lenses of lime and gypsum, possibly also salt, which are readily dissolved and leave channels and pipes through which ground water may circulate with great freedom. The shales are furthermore broken by joints and faults of sufficient extent to permit the passage of water. These characteristics make the Triassic shales of scarcely less value than the sandstone as sources of water, although the quality of the water is usually inferior. The chief importance of clay shales, however, is not as a water carrier, but as a confining layer in the midst of more porous material which serves to collect and transmit the water, giving rise to springs and determining favorable locations for wells. (See p. 109.)

WATER IN TRAP.

There are two chief types of trap rocks in the Connecticut Valley—extrusive volcanic rocks (basalt) and intrusive rocks (diabase)—but considered in regard to their water-bearing capacity they may be treated as one. Except for the amygdaloid cavities in the lavas, filled with fresh or decomposed calcite, zeolites, etc., the traps are exceedingly dense, and the interlocked crystals of feldspar and pyroxene afford practically no access to surface waters. That ground water does not penetrate these rocks is clearly shown by the presence of unaltered anhydrite and bitumen at depths less than 30 feet from the surface. Moreover, the topographic form of the trap ridges prevents their absorption of surface waters. They project high above the surrounding plain and slope in two directions, and the rain that falls on them is hurried to the lowlands in streams. In fact, the lower slopes of the lava ridges furnish favorable catchment areas for surface waters, which are utilized by Hartford, New Britain, Meriden, and New Haven for city water supplies. Under the most favorable conditions the traps contain within themselves probably less than one-half of 1 per cent of their weight of water, and therefore may be disregarded as water reservoirs. (See Pl. IV, *B*.)

WATER IN BEDDING PLANES.

CONDITIONS OF OCCURRENCE.

The sandstone, conglomerate, and shale of Connecticut, although differing markedly in texture, in extent and uniformity of bedding, and in structural relations, are alike in being water-laid deposits. They constitute a series of parallel strata separated by more or less definite bedding planes, whose location, extent, and character exert a predominant influence on the water supply of the State. If the

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strata composing the Triassic were all of one type and homogeneous the ground water would be uniformly distributed, but owing to the different degrees of permeability possessed by the sandstone and shale the water tends to concentrate along definite horizons. For example, a bed of impervious shale overlain by sandstone allows water to accumulate in the upper strata. The water occupying the spaces between the sandstone grains will find it easier to move along the bedding plane than to penetrate the shale, and if the plane is exposed on a hillside or in an artificial opening a stream or seepage of water will likely be developed. (See fig. 5.) Shale is the most impervious rock in the sedimentary series and sandstone the most pervious, and together they form the best reservoirs, but water will occupy the bedding plane between sandstone and lava, or between sandstone and conglomerate, or between two beds of the same strata. The bedding planes are not usually actual cavities visible to the eye, but rather planes of parting through which water moves by capillarity. In some places, however, the solvent action of water operating for thousands of years has widened the cracks to a fraction of an inch, and in a very few localities definite stream channels several inches in height have been developed through which water pours as small-sized rills.

That water occupies these bedding planes in large amount is abundantly shown by direct observation and by the experience of well drillers. In one of the Portland quarries, where pits 200 feet in depth have been opened "water everywhere emerges from along the bedding planes, especially along the shaly partings, where, dripping down, it darkens the quarry walls over large surfaces."[a] In 1906 an exposed rock wall 75 feet in height in this quarry showed water entering from the bedding planes in large amounts, but none coming from the joints or oozing from the rock surface. In dozens of springs within the sandstone area the water issues from the contact between strata of varying texture and composition.

The experience of well drillers leads to the same conclusion. C. L. Wright, of Augurville, who has sunk many wells in the sandstone, finds that the water comes from "flat seams"—that is, bedding planes at the "juncture of firmer rocks overlain by loose-textured rocks"—and that water frequently passes from these planes as a "sheet extending entirely across the drill hole." A. A. Murray, of Middletown, reports that the largest amount of water "is to be encountered in hard rock directly at its contact with shale." In the vicinity of Hartford, according to C. L. Grant, the "usual water horizon is in the sandstone directly above the shale."

That water circulates freely along definite bedding planes is shown by the manner in which wells that are located in proximity tend to influence one another. For example, five wells of the Electric Light

[a] Stone, vol. 9, 1898, pp. 42–43.

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Company in Hartford, sunk in sandstone and shale to a depth of 200 to 225 feet and situated 40 to 50 feet apart, are all affected when water is pumped from any one, apparently because they draw their water from the same bedding plane. Other interesting evidence of the presence of water in bedding planes and its movements along these planes is furnished by two wells at the sanitarium 2½ miles northwest of Wallingford. One of the wells became contaminated by gasoline from a buried tank, and shortly afterward the other, 225 feet distant in the direction of the slope of the rock, became contaminated also. The polluted water had apparently traveled down the tilted bedding plane between sandstone layers.

Another proof of the circulation of water along bedding planes is found in the fact that the rock bounding these planes is decomposed by the action of chemicals carried by subterranean waters. In quarries and railroad cuts where these bedding planes are exposed they usually appear as lines or zones of discolored rock, but in many places there is a distinct layer of leached and disintegrated material that has formed in place by slowly moving ground water charged with carbon dioxide and other chemical reagents.

BLACK SHALE.

Probably the most impervious rock within the Triassic area is the black bituminous shale which occurs as a member of the "Posterior" sandstones. (See p. 39.) In the vicinity of Hartford this shale has been penetrated by wells at a number of localities and at different depths, and it rarely fails to define a water horizon of great importance. The logs of wells shown in figures 16 and 17 were furnished mainly by C. L. Grant and demonstrate two interesting facts—(1) that the water-bearing strata may be shale, as in the Newington, Allyn House, and Goodwin Park wells; or sandstone, as in the Bloomfield wells; or conglomerate, as in the Windsor street well; and (2) that the typical posterior black shale, unmixed with sandy layers, is a water-confining bed of exceptional impermeability, even where only 10 feet in thickness. The well of F. C. Dininy obtains its principal water supply at 256 feet below the surface and little water was encountered at a greater depth.

WATER IN JOINTS.

VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL JOINTS.

As explained on pages 37–38, all rocks are traversed at relatively short intervals by cracks or seams which serve to mark the rock surface into polygons and break it up into blocks of various sizes. These are the joints in rocks, and their presence and distribution are important factors bearing on the water supply of Connecticut.

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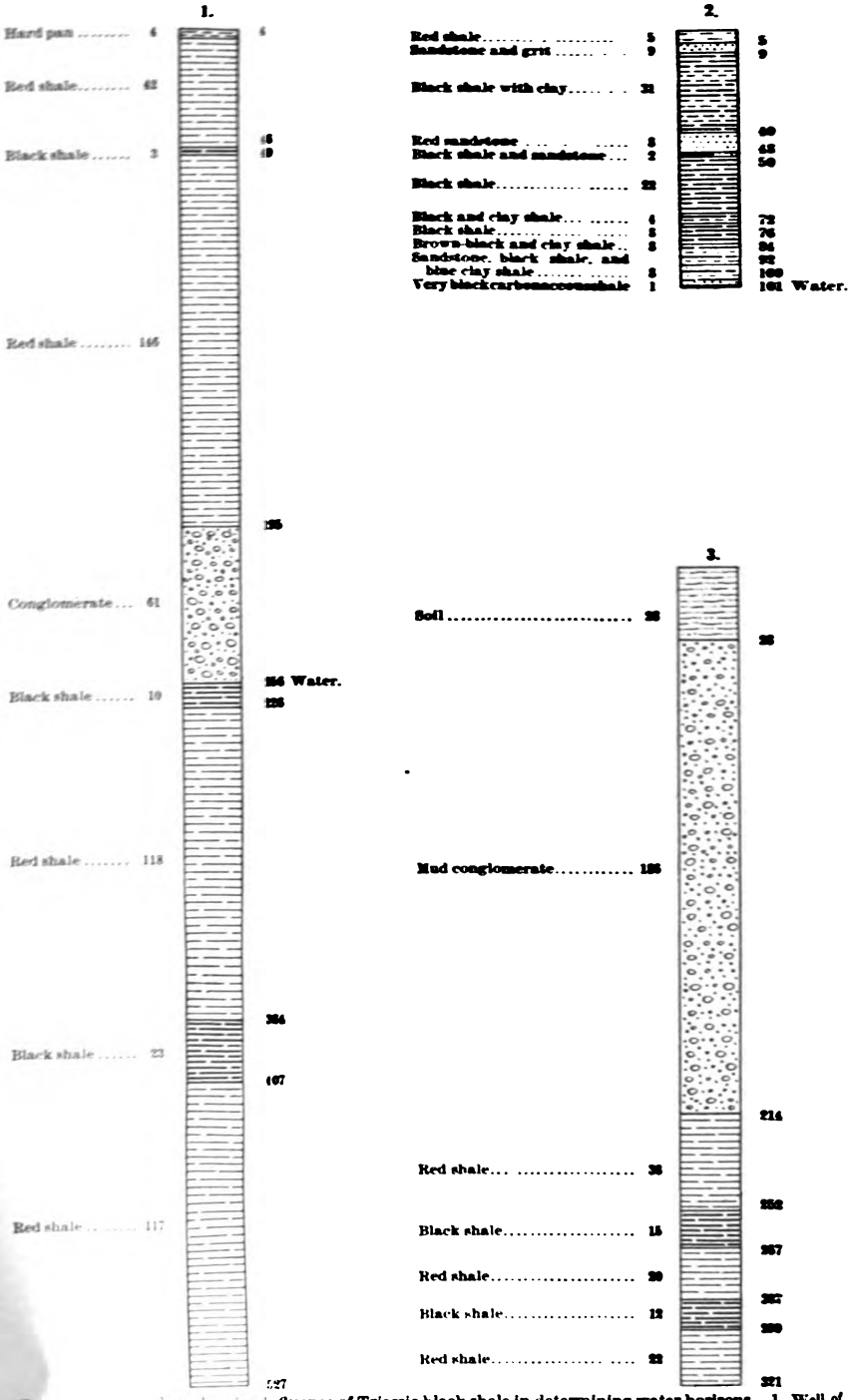

Fig. 'ogs showing influence of Triassic black shale in determining water horizons. 1, Well of adsor street, Hartford; water stands at 95 feet when well is pumped; yields 40 gallons a . 2, Well of H. C. Douglass, Bloomfield; flows 2 feet above surface; data furnished by House well, Hartford.

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The joints in Triassic sandstone, conglomerate, and shale intersect at various angles, both in the vertical and in the horizontal plane, and many of the blocks which they bound are wedges of large or small size. Numerous measurements of the inclination of joint planes show that they stand commonly at high angles approaching the vertical. In the Fairhaven tunnel the prominent joints dip between 65° and 86° S. In the railroad cut north of Yalesville and in several other localities the dip of the main joints is less than 10° from the vertical. Approximately three-fourths of the conspicuous joint planes noticed at sixteen localities in Triassic sedimentary

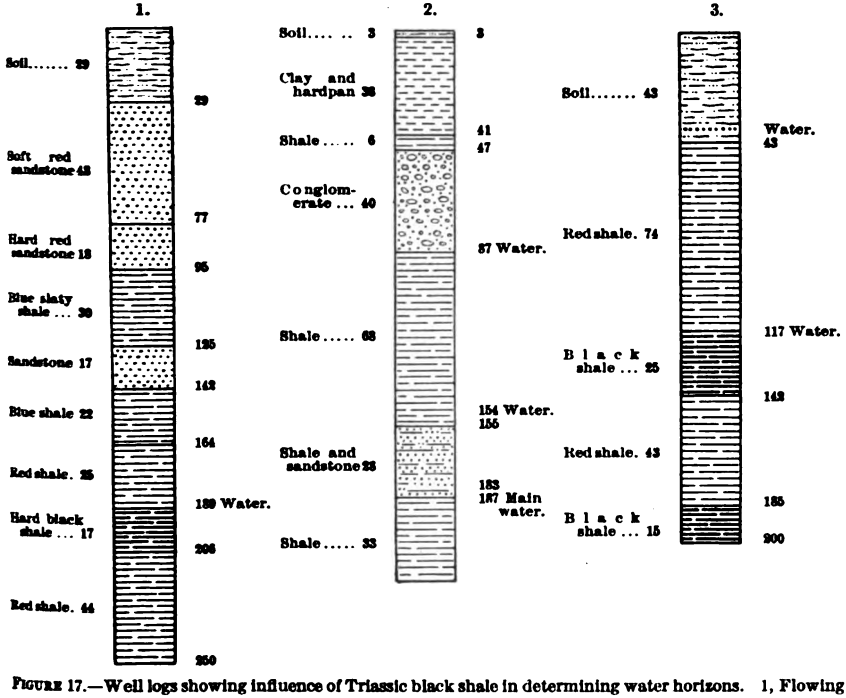

FIGURE 17.—Well logs showing influence of Triassic black shale in determining water horizons. 1, Flowing well at Goodwin Park, Hartford. 2, Well of L. A. Storrs, Bloomfield. 3, Well of Dr. A. B. Johnson, Newington; yields 40 gallons a minute.

rocks are between 70° and 90° from the horizontal. There are, however, numerous fractures which are nearly or quite parallel to the planes of stratification and which serve to break the rock into still more irregular and indeterminate fragments. These horizontal joints are in many places approximately parallel to the surface of the ground, and where they cross the bedding planes it is usually at an angle of less than 25°.

Joints, both vertical and horizontal, are more common and more conspicuous and intersect at a larger number of angles in conglomerate and coarse sandstone than in shales. In fact, large regular blocks of conglomerate are quarried in very few places within the State.

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In the sandstone quarries the joints are fairly regular and evenly spaced. In the long exposure of shaly sandstone in the gorge at South Meriden vertical joints are rare. Near Mill Rock joints in fine sandstone start, branch, and die out within a few inches, and in a number of localities joints traversing sandstone and conglomerate stop abruptly on reaching a stratum of shale. (See below.)

DIRECTION AND CONTINUITY OF JOINTING.

In the Portland quarry the prominent joints run N. 50° E., N. 60° E., N. 75°–85° E., and N. 20° W.; in the vicinity of New Haven the chief joints extend east and west, N. 70°–80° W., N. 20° W., N. 15°–20° E., and N. 50° E.; at West Granby, N. 80° W., N. 35° W., N. 10° E., and N. 20° E.; at West Cheshire, N. 80° W., N. 50°–60° W., N. 30° W., N. 10° E., and N. 55°–60° E. In the Pomperaug Valley Hobbs[a] found four major directions of jointing—N. 34° W., N. 5° W., N. 15° E., and N. 54° E. Although these uniform joint directions indicate some cause operating throughout the Triassic areas, there are many local variations, and in each region prominent cracks occur which do not correspond with the more common joints. For practical purposes each locality must be studied separately.

Some of the more prominent joint planes have been traced on the surface for several hundred feet and from the top to the bottom of the deepest quarry and railroad cuts. A few doubtless extend parallel to fault lines for some thousands of feet. Most of the joints observed, however, appear as open cracks for distances rarely exceeding 50 feet, though they may extend for great distances, both vertically and horizontally, as invisible parting planes.

SPACING OF JOINTS.

In the outcrops of sedimentary rock examined there was found great irregularity in the number and distribution of joints. In places the joints are 50 to 60 feet apart; elsewhere ten to twenty joints occupy 50 feet of wall space. In most large outcrops there are zones along which joints are crowded at intervals of less than an inch, and on weathered surfaces and in cuts where blasting has been carried on the rock is shattered into fragments a few inches in thickness by a multitude of intersecting joints. Outcrops of red and black shale occur in which the horizontal joints have separated the rock into chips or flakes that could be removed with a shovel. It is evident that in such rock ground water would circulate freely and be stored in large quantities. In the Portland quarries the main sets of vertical joints are 30 feet or more apart; at the north end they are 35 to 100 feet apart; and nowhere in the quarry were joints of the

[a] Hobbs, W. H., Twenty-first Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 3, 1901, p. 100.

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same series observed nearer than 7 feet from each other. In the railroad tunnel at Fairhaven the larger joints are about 25 feet apart and converge at low acute angles and branch out. At Pine Rock and West Rock the joints of all kinds average about five to a linear yard. The spacing of joints and their angle of inclination are the factors which determine the number contributory to a well.

Both vertical and horizontal joints are wider, more numerous, and more closely spaced near the surface than farther down. In one quarry observed by the writer the upper 30 feet of wall had nearly twice as many horizontal joints as the second 30 feet. The effect of joints is to greatly favor the absorption of water, but this must be a surface phenomenon, as the joints die out with increasing depth. In Connecticut large open joints are probably rare at depths exceeding 200 feet.

OPENING OF JOINTS.

Some joints at the earth's surface and probably all joints at considerable depths are tightly closed and are more nearly planes along which the rock might be broken than open cracks. Many joints, however, are a fraction of an inch wide, some are 1 inch to 2 inches wide, and in the Blakeslee quarry horizontal joint zones 3 to 4 inches wide are found. One crack in this quarry which is 2½ inches in width at the top was so narrow at the bottom that a sheet of note paper could not be inserted. Many joints exposed in quarry walls are filled with decomposed rock through their extent, and experience in well drilling proves that decomposition extends to considerable distances and serves to enlarge cracks to an important degree. (See pp. 73–74.) Where two joints intersect or where one crosses a bedding plane a channel may be developed by removing the disintegrated rock which forms the boundary planes. (See fig. 18.) In one of the Portland quarries the water enters in good-sized streams from vertical joints to an amount estimated at 250,000 gallons daily. Such freedom of circulation would account for the water-laid sand found in joints at Hartford 20 feet below the surface. Numerous small joints, however, furnish more abundant and uniform water supply than a few large open fractures.

JOINTS IN TRAP.

The direction, continuity, and inclination of cracks in the trap of the Triassic area are essentially the same as in sandstone. Exposures of trap rock are invariably characterized by well-developed vertical joints intersecting one another in all directions in vertical planes and dividing the rock into a series of polygonal blocks. This type of jointing undoubtedly is more conspicuous in exposures than it would be in unweathered ledges, yet the structure is developed in

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deeply buried rock and occasions trouble in drilling, owing to the breaking off of angular blocks that wedge the tools.

The opening of joints in trap and their value as reservoirs are practically the same as in the denser crystalline rocks described in Chapter IV (pp. 54–103).

WATER ALONG FAULT LINES.

Faults in rock are joints or cracks along which the strata have moved up or down or sidewise. The amount of displacement may be a fraction of an inch or thousands of feet, but as a rule there is a complete break in the continuity of the strata and a more or less open crack to mark the line of rupture. Few faults are single clean-cut breaks; more commonly they consist of a number of breaks that

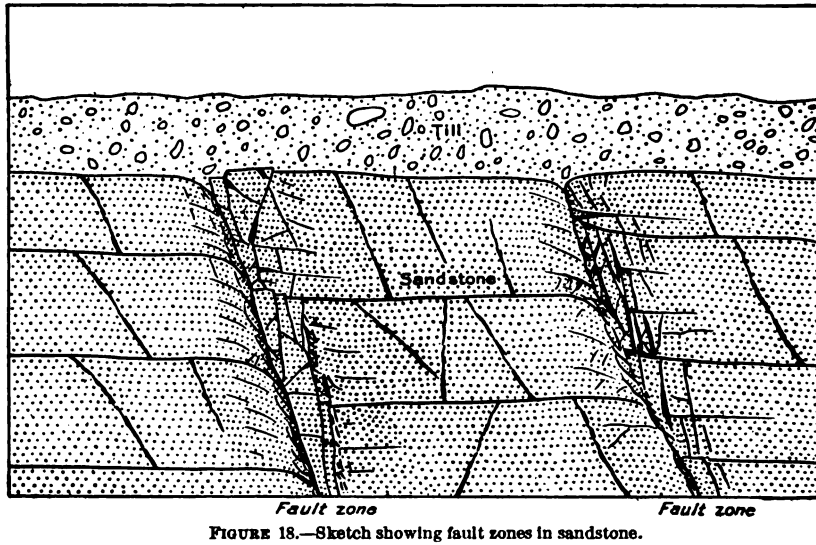

FIGURE 18.—Sketch showing fault zones in sandstone.

result in shattering the rock along a line some feet in width, forming a zone of material arranged as a confused mosaic of loose or cemented fragments.

The structure of fault zones is favorable for the absorption of large quantities of ground water, which may be readily recovered. (See fig. 18.) Many springs in Oregon, the hot springs of the southern Appalachians, Saratoga Springs, etc., are located along faults, and the character of their waters is due to the great depths from which they come. The relation of springs to fault lines is a well-known phenomenon in Connecticut and some striking instances have been described by W. H. Hobbs.[a] At one place in the Pomperaug Valley eight springs occur within a distance of 60 rods, all located on a single

[a] Twenty-first Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 3, 1901, pp. 91–93.

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fault line. Near South Britain a number of springs are located at the intersection of two or more fault lines.[a] Where fault lines are exposed in cuts and quarries the circulation of water in them is shown by actual seepage, by growth of plants, and by a zone of decomposed rock, formed by the solvent and oxidizing power of the ground water carrying carbon dioxide, etc., in solution. The relation of faults to water supply is well illustrated in the Middlesex quarry. Here the principal water carrier is an oblique fault zone 6 inches to 1 foot wide, which not only absorbs much water from the earth's surface but is also the main artery receiving supplies from bedding planes one-fourth to one-half inch wide. This fault contains probably 15 per cent of open space available for water storage.

Examples of wells located on faults are those of the Hartford Light and Power Company and of Armour & Co. at Hartford. The wells at the New York, New Haven and Hartford power house and the Berlin Brick Company and the Yale Brick Company's works, Berlin Junction, and at Hotel Russwin, New Britain, are advantageously located near fault zones.

RECORDS OF WELLS IN TRIASSIC SANDSTONES, CONGLOMERATES, AND SHALES.

The records of wells on the following pages have been selected to show the conditions controlling the recovery of ground water in the Triassic sediments of Connecticut.

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[a] Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 67, 1902, p. 80.

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Records of wells in sandstone and other Triassic rocks of Connecticut.

No.[a]	Town.	Village.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth in rock.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal source.	Depth at which water stands.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter of well.	Temperature.	Character of water.	Use.	Cost per foot.	Remarks.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*			*Dolls*	
*1	Avon		Mrs. J. B. Hadsell.	Plain	70	30	100	75	23	Pumping lowers.	1	6		Hard	Domestic		
2	Berlin		C. M. Jarvis				224		46		Good.	6		do	do	2.35	Water comes from shale.
3	do		G. H. Sage	Hill	75	75	150	148	50			6		do	do	2.75	
4	do		J. B. Smith				201		50		6	6		do	do	2.00	
5	do	Berlin	F. L. Wilcox				220	220	50		40	8			General	3.40	
6	do		Geo. Arthur	Hill	60	55	115		20		10				do	2.00	
7	Bristol	Forestville	M. McCormick	do	4	47	51		26		1				do	2.50	
8	Bloomfield		H. C. Douglas	Slope	5	96	101		+ 2		8	6		Hard	Medicinal		Flowing well. Water comes from black shale. (See analysis, p. 177.)
9	Chatham	East Hampton	F. S. Hall		22	14	36	28	22		¾	6		do	Domestic	3.30	
10	Cheshire		Cheshire Coal and Feed Co.		35	7	42	42	14		60	6		do		2.30	Probably from surface material at contact with rock.
11	do		R. H. Morgan	Slope	11	180	191		17		4	6	52	do	Greenhouses, domestic.	2.15	
*12	do		S. A. Bronson		12	313	325		35		25	6					
13	do		Frank Ives		12	24	36	33	2		20	6					
14	do		Mr. Williams		5	83	88	35, 40, 85	8		6	6					
15	do	West Cheshire.	Ball and Socket Manufacturing Co.	Valley.			150	146	19	Not lowered at 30 gallons.	+30	6	55		Factory, boiler.	2.00	Water found in "gray" rock. (See analysis, p. 177.)
16	Durham	Durham Center.	Henry Burchel	Slope	18	40	58	43	8	Pumping lowers and lower in summer.		6		Hard	Domestic		Water comes from seam in rock.
17	do		Albert Eich	Stream bed.			980?		Flows.					do	Domestic, stock.		When allowed to flow this well dries up three other wells within a quarter-mile radius.
18	East Hartford.	Burnside	Mr. Hanson	Flat	15	33	48		15		12				General	2.25	
19	do	do	J. M. Mohrs	do	17	34	51		15		2				do	2.20	
20	do	do	P. Donohue	do	30	46	76		31		60				do	2.00	

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21	do	do	East Hartford Manufacturing Co.				398		Flows.		Very large.			Hard			
22	East Haven		G. E. Poirot	Hill	½	99½	100		28		2½				Domestic		Passes through trap rock.
23	do		C. M. Finch	Slope	7	48	55	50	15		6½				do		
*24	do	Morris Cove	Rev. W. Roberts	Hill	17½	54	71½		22		2½			Medium	do		
25	East Windsor	Broadbrook	Jos. Morton	Flat	60	26	86		48		32				General		
*26	do	Melrose	F. Gowdy	Hollow	60	250	310		4		80				do	2.00	See analysis, p. 177.
27	do	do	E. M. Granger		135	135	270		80		22					2.00	
28	do	Warehouse Point.	Biard Daniels Co.	Flat	17	385	402		10		120					1.75	
29	do	Windsorville	Edw. Miller	Hill	9	209	218		43		12				General	2.00	
30	do	do	John Colman	do	87	30	117		47		40					2.00	
31	Ellington		John Thompson	do	15	42	57		11		50						
32	Enfield	Hazardville	J. W. Copley	Slope	10	31	41	41	10		40	6	47	Soft	Domestic, stock.	1.80	10 feet lower in summer of 1900.
33	do	do	E. C. Allen		40	67	107		20	Constant	25	6	48	Hard	Domestic	2.00	
34	do	do	Wm. Smith	Plain	52	58	110	108	28		15	6	50	Soft	Domestic, stock.		
35	do	do	Justin Bardwell	do	15	26	41		5		28	6		do	General	1.50	
36	do	do	E. King	Flat	4	44	48		5		50				do		
37	do	do	G. Reynolds	do	90	15	105		15		22						
*38	do	Thompsonville.	Connecticut Valley Brewing Co.		12	40	52		7	Pumping lowers 8 feet.	31	6	51	Hard	Boilers		
40	do	do	Issac Allen		17	50	67	45, 67	22	Lowers 15 feet in dry weather.	Good.	6	52	Medium	Domestic		
41	do	Hazardville	Frank Olmstead	Flat	38	67	105		13		15				General		
42	do	do	Willis King	do	15	23	38		23		1				do		
43	do	do	do	Hill	40	33	73		36		6				do		
44	do	do	Harry Bridge	do	15	31	46		12		50						
45	do	do	Mrs. M. Fox	do	17	32	49		19		29						
46	do	do	Robt. Horthorn	do	25	35	60		10		15						
*47	Glastonbury		C. N. Carter	Valley	150½	74½	225	210–225	30	Constant		2		Soft	Domestic		
48	Hamden	Mount Carmel	H. D. Clark	Plain	28	32	60	50	Flows, 2+.	Pumps down to 6 feet.	15	6		Medium	do	2.50	Well flows in wet seasons but not in dry.
49	do	do	A. Woodman		12	58	70		14		9	6			do		
50	do	do	F. S. Brockett	Plain	35	7	42	37	28	Constant	15	6	42	Soft	do		Probably from gravel.
51	do	do	Phelps Montgomery.	Slope	3	77	80	33, 60, 78	18	Pumping lowers to 26 feet.	15						Sandy till and red sandstone to one-fourth mile south of a trap mountain.
52	do		W. W. Terrell	do	8	35	43		15	Varies with wet and dry season.		6	48	Hard	Domestic	2.00	
53	do		I. V. Cook	Plain			116	80	30	Constant		6	50	Soft	do	1.50	

[a] Additional details concerning wells marked * are given on pp. 124–126.

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Records of wells in sandstone and other Triassic rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Village.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth in rock.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal source.	Depth at which water stands.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter of well.	Temperature.	Character of water.	Use.	Cost per foot.	Remarks.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	°*F.*			*Dolls*	
54	Hamden		W. C. Mansfield	Slope			55	40	15	Varies with wet and dry season.	2			Hard	Domestic, barn.	2.00	
55	do		C. L. Wright	do	8	38	46	28	12		6			do	Domestic, lawn.	1.50	
56	do		B. A. Davis				140		17		Large.			do		2.00	
57	do	Whitneyville	Morris Steinert		4	119	123		20		10	6			Domestic		
58	do	do	F. D. Grave		0	140	140	130	34	Pumping lowers 20 feet.	15	a8			do		
59	do	do	W. F. Downes		7	43	50	35	3	5		6		Hard	General	2.50	Water destroys solder in copper tank.
60	do	do	H. R. Stadtmiller.	Slope	0	85	85		22	Pumping lowers to 40 feet.	8	6	45	do		5.00	
61	do	do	C. E. Langdon	Ridge	8	82	90	40	35	Varies 10 feet with dry and wet season.	6	6	45	Soft	Domestic		
62	do	do	New Haven Country Club.	Hill			196	190	30		Good	6		do	General	2.00	
63	do	do	F. D. Putnam	Slope	12	153	165	164	20	Constant	+15	6		do	House, barn.	3.00	
*64	Hartford		Mrs. Samuel Colt	do			1,250					6					
65	do		Hartford Rubber Works Co.	Valley	190	160	350		18	Constant	45	6	54	Hard	Drinking		
66	do		D. F. Burns	Slope	40	223	263	+200	Flows.	Pumping lowers.	30	6	53		Ice machine, general use.	2.00	
67	do		Y. M. C. A.	Valley	52	148	200	175	50		+25	6					
68	do		Keney Park	Slope	58	142	200	166	Flows 9+.		14	6	51	Hard	Used to supply lake.	2.00	
69	do		Goodwin Park	Foot of hill.			251		Flows +31.		Flows 1½.		53	do	Drinking	2.00	Water of black shale horizon. (See analysis, p. 177.)

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70	do		Joseph Dart	Hill			74	69	Flows 0.	Constant	Flows ⅜.			Hard and sulphur.	Drinking, stock.		
71	do		Francis Parsons	do			136		86		3			Hard	Domestic	2.25	
72	do		J. A. Pilyard	do	150	55	205	190	52		60			Sulphur.	Manufacturing, bakery.	2.00	
73	do		F. C. Rockwell				206	206	15					Hard			
*74	do		Capewell Horse-nail Co.	Plain	12	238	250		12					do		1.60	See analyses, p. 177.
75	do		H. C. Long	Hill	15	26	41		25		23		50		Domestic, stable.	3.00	
76	do		Armour & Co.	Flat	0	430	430		1		100			Hard	Cooling		
77	do		Kelly Bros	do	32	143	175		15		60			do	Washing stone.		
78	do		Atlantic Screw Co.	do	22	218	240		12		35			do	General		
*79	do		Hartford Light and Power Co.				620				125	12					
*80	do		New England Brewing Co.				462				350	10		Hard			
*81	do		Armour & Co.				420			Flows	150	6					
*81½	do		Hubert Fischer Brewing Co.				500				75	8		Hard	Cooling		See note on p. 81.
82	do		Brady Bros		33	244	277				25	6			Bottling		Water becomes cloudy at times.
83	do		W. C. Wade		12	113	125		13		200		54	Hard	Cooling		
84	Manchester	South Manchester.	Harry Bowers	Flat	20	47	67		21		24				General		
*85	do	do	Cheney Bros	Valley	12	445	457	400	Flows 15+.	Constant	205	[b] 2	54	Hard	Washing silks.	(c)	See analysis, p. 177.
86	do	do	M. S. Chapman		20	205	225		Flow.		30	6		do	Fish ponds.		
87	do	do	do		20	105	125		Flow.		11			do	do		
88	do	do	do		20	55	75		Flow.		2½			do	do		
89	do	do	do		20	55	75				None.			do	do		
90	do	North Manchester.	F. J. Sharp		19	81	100		1		10			do			
*91	do	do	American Writing Paper Co.				300		Flows.		Flows, 12.			do			
92	do		Clayton Grant	Slope	16	87	103	100	50	Constant		6		do	Drinking		
93	Meriden		H. L. Aubrey	Plain			100	35	20		Large.	8		do	Laundry	3.00	
94	do		T. P. Lyon	do	30	46	76	70	6			6				2.50	
95	do		Meriden Brewing Co.				279		18		60	8		Hard	Brewery		
96	do		Meriden Bronze Co.				300				100	8		do			
97	do		Foster-Merriam Co.		100	200	300		0		100	8			Factory		

[a] For 2 feet 6 inches.

[b] 8 inches for 385 feet; 6 inches for 75 feet.

[c] $3.50 for 8-inch; $2.75 for 6-inch.

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Records of wells in sandstone and other Triassic rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Village.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth in rock.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal source.	Depth at which water stands.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter of well.	Temperature.	Character of water.	Use.	Cost per foot.	Remarks.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	*° F.*			*Dolls*	
98	Meriden		J. G. Schwink, jr.	Slope			80		15	Constant	Large.	6		Hard	Stock	2.00	
99	do		D. L. Bishop	Flat			102	102	19		30	6		Soft	General	2.20	
*100	do	Meriden	Edward Miller & Co.				(a)				10–80	8		Hard	do		
*101	do	do	International Silver Co.		100	460	560		5			6		Very hard.	Too hard for boilers.		
102	do	do	Meriden Curtain Fixture Co.		50	255	305				25	6					
*103	Middlefield		G. W. Durkee	Hill	70	15	85	80	40	Pumping lowers 12 feet.	Large.	6	52	Soft	Domestic, stock.	2.00	
104	do		O. N. Miller	Plain	5	320	325		60			6		do	Domestic	2.25	
105	Middletown		A. W. Budde	Slope	40	70	110	70	35			6	50	Hard, iron.	do	1.50	
106	do		Connecticut Hospital for Insane.	Hill	70	138½	208½	190				4	45	Soft, iron	Drinking		
107	do		Goodyear Rubber Co.	Slope	40	156	196	130	Flows, 2+.	Pumping lowers.		6		Hard	Cooling		
108	do		Portland Silk Co.	Plain	50	71	121	120	Flows.			6				2.30	
109	do		Russell Manufacturing Co.	Stream bed.	30	120	150	130	Flows, 3+.		5	6		Soft	Drinking	2.00	
110	do		B. F. Turner	Terrace, plain.	25	35	70	70	20	Constant	Good.	5		do	Domestic	2.00	
111	do		R. Kennedy	do	50	200	250	240	10	Pumping lowers.	Good.	10		Iron		2.00	Water level sinks 2 or 3 inches in dry weather.
112	do		L. D. Brown & Son Co.	Slope	40	252	292		45	Pumping lowers 30 feet.	80	6		Hard	Drinking	2.00	See analysis, p. 177.
*113	do		Wilcox, Crittenden & Co.	do	15	785	800	40	12–25		(2) Small.	6		Soft	Abandoned		
114	New Britain		A. J. Sloper	Hill			75	47	15	Constant	45 Large.	3		Medium			Became contaminated with use.
115	do		Landers, Tracy & Clark.	(b)	40	202	242	100	14	Pumping lowers	9	6		Hard			Water said to be in rock of slaty nature in trap.
*116	do	New Britain	Hotel Russwin				152		9		Large.						

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117	New Haven		New England Dairy Co.			1	157½					6			General, boiler.		See analysis, p. 177.
118	do		Seamless Rubber Co.				160				10	8			Factory purposes, cooling, general.		
*119	do		Winchester Repeating Arms Co.				4,000				Dry.	8					
120	do		J. E. Heaton	Slope	0	101	101	4			1½	6			Domestic		
121	do		L. Simons		6	91	97		20		1	6			do		
122	do		H. B. Ives		26	59	85	1	12			6			do		
123	do		St. Francis Orphan Asylum.		6	236	242		3		3				General		
124	do		W. P. Blake	Slope	3	147	150		25		30	6			Domestic		
125	do		G. H. Gill		12	90	102		16		30+	6			do		
*126	do		Hoyt Beef Co.	Flat	264	308	572		10		7	6			General		
127	do	New Haven	Lavigne Automatic Machine Co.			53	42	95			13	6					
128	do	Fair Haven	New Haven Iron and Steel Co.		119	406	525		10		1	6			General		
129	do		Housatonic Manufacturing Co.		32	168	200		25		10	6					
130	do	Fair Haven	J. R. King			203	203			Pumping does not lower.	40	6		Soft			No water above 100 feet.
131	do		Jos. Kegelmeyer	Plain	8	123	121	80	20		Good.	6				2.00	
132	do		Frank Brazos	do	70	57	127		48			6		Iron	Drinking	1.80	
133	Newington	Elm Hill	F. B. Wischek	Slope			75	17	13		3	6		Hard, iron.		2.00	
134	North Branford.	Northford	Mrs. T. H. Smith.	Hill			50	23	(c)			6				4.00	
135	do	do	Chas. Foote	Slope	1	99	100	98	(d)			6		Soft		2.00	
136	do	do					100					6					
137	North Haven	Montowese	T. Bishop		20	44	64		18		3	6					
138	do	do	do		20	62	62		18		2	6					
139	do		Wm. Dickerman.	Hill	0	140	140		50		2½	6					
140	do		A. F. Austin	do	0	50	50	20	30			4		Hard	General		
141	do		do	do	4	50	54	44	10	Constant	Large.	6		do	do		
142	do		C. W. Turner	Slope			96	70	70		Good.		(e)		Domestic	2.00	
143	do	Clintonville	J. E. Brockett	Plain	30	59	89	79		Constant	Good.	6		Hard	Domestic, stock.	2.00	
144	do		M. N. Wooding	Hill	15	15	30	24	10	Varies in season.		6		do		2.00	
145	do		G. O. Munson	Slope			75	50	10	Constant		6		Soft	Domestic	1.50	
146	do		E. A. Potter	do	46	24	70							Hard	do	2.00	
147	do		H. R. Smith	Hill			140	130	10	Pumping lowers.		6			General	2.00	

a 5 wells, 250 feet. b Swampy ground. c Flows in wet season. d Varies seasonal, 20 to 45 e Top 56, bottom 50.

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Records of wells in sandstone and other Triassic rocks of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Village.	Owner.	Topographic position.	Depth to rock.	Depth in rock.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal source.	Depth at which water stands.	Variation of water level.	Yield per minute.	Diameter of well.	Temperature.	Character of water.	Use.	Cost per foot.	Remarks.
					Ft.	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*	*Ft.*		*Galls.*	*In.*	*° F.*			*Dolls*	
148	North Haven		I. L. Stiles & Son Brick Co.	Flat	50	70	120		30			6			General, boilers.		
149	Orange	West Haven	Mrs. E. Rogers	Hill	6	45	51				1½	6			Domestic		
150	Plainville		J. N. Bishop	Slope	6	46	52		40			6		Soft			
151	Rocky Hill		W. E. Pratt	Hill			56	54+½	28		1	6		Very hard.	Domestic	3.00	14 feet of soil, 36 feet of trap, 1½ feet of sedimentary rock.
152	Simsbury		Westminster School.	do			212		87	Constant	17	4	54	Soft	Drinking, washing, boilers.	3.00	See analysis, p. 177.
153	Somers	Somers Station	W. Prentice	Flat	52	18	70		30		50				General		
154	do	Somersville	do	Somerville Manufacturing Co.	60	26	86		20		20				do		
155	do	do	S. Anderson	do	83	11	94		20		7				do		
156	do	do	R. Delaney	Hill	55	15	70		37		2				do		
157	do	do	C. Doothy	do	20	13	33		10		5				do		
158	do	do	S. Ledgere	Flat	53	15	78		15		30				do		
159	do	do	S. Anderson	Hill	82	12	94		30		25				do		
160	do	do	W. Hemingway	Flat	13	29	42		18		50				do		
161	do	do	W. Billings	do	2	78	80		24		15				do		
162	Southington	Milldale	M. S. & C. T. Co.	Valley			200	150	20	Varies with season.		6		Hard	Boilers		
*163	South Windsor.	Wapping	C. M. Johnson	Flat	84	34	118	35	30		½	8		Soft	Domestic		
164	do	do	B. F. Nichols	Slope	60	20	80	80	36					Hard			
*165	Suffield		Suffield Water Co.	Hill	67	163	230	230	70		300	6	50	do	Town supply.		See analysis, p. 177.
*166	do		do	do	67	170	237	237	80			4		do	do		
167	do		Chas. Spencer	do	6	39	45		35		7				General		
168	do		Chas. Bissell	do	25	75	100		25		40				do		
169	do		S. A. Kent	do	90	169	259		18		100				do		
170	do	West Suffield	Terrett House	Flat	15	60	75		12		50				do		
171	do	do	Clara Loomis	do	5	120	125		17		8				do		
172	do	do	J. Gregg	do	8	123	131		24		10				do		
173	do	do	J. Noble	do	20	80	100		24		30				do		
174	do	do	W. Noble	do	3	59	62		24		14				do		
175	do	do	Sam Barr	do	50	50	100		20		40				do		
176	do	do	W. H. Hastings	do	135	50	185		Flows.		15				do		

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177	do	do	Geo. Peckham	do	84	81	165		13		25				do			
178	Wallingford		G. D. Hall	Slope			67				Small.	4			Stock			
179	do		City of Meriden	Plain			105	80	80			6			Domestic, stock.		2.50	
180	West Hartford.	Elmwood	N. E. Goodwin	Hill	55	45	100	30	30		8	6		Hard	Domestic		3.00	
181	do		Whitlock Coil Pipe Co.	Small hill.	60	137	197		25			6		do	Boiler			
182	do		Paul Thompson	Slope	20	20	40		30		Good.	2		do	Domestic		2.50	
183	do		St. Mary's Home	do			200	200						Soft	Stock, lawn			
184	do	Buena Vista	W. E. Howe	Hill			62				2			Hard	Domestic			
185	do		H. O. Griswold		10	142	152		15	Lowered pumping to 112 feet.		6						
186	Westersfield		C. L. Grant, C. I. Allen.	Hill			192		85		7	6		Hard	Stock		3.00	
187	do		L. Grant, E. S. Goodrich.	do			82		62		12	6		do	Domestic			
*188	Windsor	Rainbow	Wm. L. Bidwell	Knoll	70	61½	131½		26	Pumping lowers.	½	6	50	do	do			
189	do		H. J. Fisk	Hill			135	135	40	Constant	2	6		do	General		2.00	See analysis, p. 177.
*190	do	Windsor	Windsor Water Co.		123	263	386		40	Pumping lowers 5 feet.	30	6						
*191	do	Wilson Station.	Christiansson Bros.				113				50	6						
192	do	Windsor Heights.	Dr. H. J. Fisk				135				Small.			Medium hard.				
193	Windsor Locks.		J. O. R. Sheridan.	Hill	90	110	200		30		45				General		2.00	

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NOTES.[a]

1. Passed through 20 feet of gravel, 25 feet of quicksand, 25 feet of gravel and hardpan, and 30 feet of red shale, in which the water was obtained. The water comes in slowly and carries fine sediment.

12. A little water was obtained at a depth of 50 feet and the water rose within 12 feet of the surface and remained at this level until a large supply was struck at a depth of 325 feet, when the water level lowered to 35 feet below the surface.

24. Passed through 17½ feet of soil and through 54 feet of trap ending in a hard red rock, probably sandstone. The source of the water is at the contact between the trap and the sandstone.

26. This well was drilled through sandstone into trap rock and the water enters above the trap.

38. This well is 52 feet deep and 6 inches in diameter, 40 feet of its depth being in the rock. The water rises within 7 feet of the top, a good many feet above the level of Connecticut River, which is only a stone's throw away. The pump raises 31 gallons a minute, which lowers the well 8 feet, but no farther. The water is moderately hard, has been used in boilers, and keeps a uniform temperature of 51° F. the year round.

47. Soil and sand, 20 feet; blue clay, hard and dry, 30 feet; clay and red quicksand, 10 feet; fine red quicksand, very shifting and hard packed, with a thin layer of saturated gravel at 118 feet from the surface, 60 feet; quicksand, 30 feet; gravel, 8 inches; sandstone, varying in hardness at different depths, 74½ feet. The water stood at 8 feet below the surface in the first soil and sand stratum but dropped to 30 feet below the surface after the 30-foot layer of clay was penetrated.

64. This well was drilled in 1863 by Col. Samuel Colt and flowed until 1898, when a well was drilled 1,000 feet farther north and the Colt well stopped flowing the next day.

74. This well was drilled by C. L. Grant, who furnished the following data: Depth, 250 feet; diameter, 8 inches. The well is in rock and flows. Elisha Gregory, a well driller of New York City, states in his "Torpedo circular" that the well was torpedoed by him at a later date and that as a result the yield was increased from 15 to 35 gallons a minute. It is reported that the quality of the water was injured by the process. Inquiry at the office of the company shows that at last accounts the water was not used for anything, so heavily is it charged with mineral matter. For analysis see table on page 177.

79. The 620-foot well of this company gives a more copious supply of water in rainy than in dry weather. The water contains too much calcium sulphate for boilers but is used for condensers. This well is said to have diminished the yields of four wells, each about 200 feet in depth, sunk for the same company.

80. It is stated that 400 gallons a minute have been pumped from this well without making any apparent impression on the water level. The well is 462 feet deep.

81. Depth, 420 feet. The water flows 1 inch over the top of the pipe when allowed to stand, which brings the water level above a large part of the neighboring land. The ordinary yield is 150 gallons a minute, the well being pumped continuously.

†81½. Depth, 500 feet; diameter, 8 inches. The water rises to the surface of the engine-room floor, and is pumped at the rate of 75 gallons a minute. The well is drilled in the "Upper" sandstones, but unquestionably pierces the "Posterior" trap sheet, which outcrops at no great distance to the west.

85. The water in this 457-foot well will rise 15 feet above the top and yield 205 gallons a minute at the surface. Pumping 600 gallons a minute for ten hours lowered the water level to 12 feet below the surface, where it remained constant.

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[a] Descriptions of wells marked "†" are taken from Water-Supply Paper 110.

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†91. Depth, 300 feet; diameter, 4 (?) inches. The water flows over the top of the pipe at a rate of probably 10 to 12 gallons a minute. The water is hard and is used for drinking purposes only. The well lies entirely in the rock, which, in the stream near by, is seen to be rather loose in texture and to be filled with fragments of the crystalline rocks of the neighboring eastern highland.

†100. There are on the premises of this company five artesian wells, all 8 inches in diameter, from 250 to 300 feet deep, and bored into red sandstone, which at this place lies from 6 to 10 feet below the surface of the ground. The yield was measured when they were first bored, and varied in the different wells from 10 to 80 gallons a minute. The supply thus measured was obtained by means of an ordinary suction pump, which, operated at the rate named, lowered the water about 25 feet below the surface—as low as it could be pumped with that form of apparatus. A few years ago a system that works by compressed air and forces the water from depths of 70 to 90 feet was installed. This apparatus gave a very greatly increased output, which now supplies all the needs of the company. The water from these wells is all discharged into one large cistern, from which it is circulated through the factory. It is not easy to determine exactly the amount of water used, but it is estimated as between 75,000 and 100,000 gallons a day of ten hours. A much larger quantity than this could be obtained if needed. The water is satisfactory for manufacturing purposes except for use in boilers.

101. A well 560 feet deep, penetrating 9 feet of soil, 18 inches of gravel, 90 feet of quicksand, and 459½ feet of rock.

108. Drilled through 24 feet of clay, 20 feet of sand, 8 feet of clay, 50 feet of sandstone.

113. Depth, 500 feet. At a depth of 40 feet in sandy shale the well gave a small flow and drained an old dug well, 25 feet deep, in similar material. The well passed through about 300 feet of sandstone above bluish sandy shale and through a soft carbonaceous shale at about 400 feet. The well then passed through conglomerate and ended in blue clay shale. No water was struck below 40 feet and the flow ceased after a charge of nitroglycerine was fired in the well.

†116. Depth, 152 feet; depth of water when lowest, 130 feet, but if the well is a allowed to stand the water flows at the level of the engine-room floor, which is 10 feet below grade. The ordinary consumption is fully 10,000 gallons a day. The water can be used for all purposes. The well penetrated 140 feet of sandstone, etc., without finding enough water to keep the drill wet, but at that depth the drill became jammed in what appeared to be a crack about 2 inches wide, and an ingress of water followed the loosening of the drill. The apparent breadth of the crack may in reality be due rather to the presence of soft, decomposed rock along the joint plane than to an actual opening of the size indicated.

119. Drilled by the company in 1893, but no water was obtained except from surface seepage. It is 4,000 feet deep.

126. Depth, 572 feet. Penetrated 264 feet of quicksand and clay, the clay occurring mainly in small layers but with one 25-foot stratum above the rock.

163. Passed through 6 feet of loam, 76 feet of sand, 2 feet of gravel, and 34 feet of sandstone.

†165 and **166.** Town water supply of Suffield, owned by Paulus Fuller. No. 165 is 230 feet deep and has a diameter of 6 inches; No. 166 is 240 feet deep and has a diameter of 8 inches. The two wells together pump at the rate of 300 gallons a minute into a standpipe containing 293,000 gallons. The water rises within about 60 feet of the surface and is rather highly mineralized. It can be used in boilers, however, but gives some scale. The wells enter rock about 10 feet below the surface.

188. Depth, 131½ feet. Passed through 70 feet of soil, consisting of light sandy soil, light gravel, coarse gravel, and hardpan, and penetrated 61½ feet of soft red

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sandstone. The water naturally stands at 26 feet below the surface, and on being pumped out to a depth of 75 feet gave the following flows, as recorded by Mr. Bidwell:

Depth (feet).	Water rose (feet).	Time (hours).	Feet per hour.
75	5	½	20
64	3.5	½	14
	11.5	1	11.5
	18.5	2¾	6.7
52½	4.5	½	9
48	2.5	1	2.5

†190. Depth, 386 feet; depth of water, 326 feet; diameter, 6 inches. The pump yields 30 gallons a minute, which lowers the water 5 feet. The well passed through sand, 17 feet; clay, 56 feet; hard red gravel, 50 feet; the remainder in sandstone with the exception of two layers of "slate." Four analyses of the water have been made, according to which it ranges from moderately hard to excessively hard. It would seem that the water is free from organic impurities, but shows sulphate of lime to the extent of 590 parts to the million. It is extremely hard to the soap test. When first drawn the water is said to give off a strong odor of hydrogen sulphide.

†191. Depth, 113 feet; diameter, 6 inches; yield, 50 gallons a minute. Drilled in the bottom of an old open well and lies in the rock. The water is good only for drinking and garden use. It is said that when the well was first drilled the water had a very strong odor, which disappeared after the well had been used awhile. Data furnished by King & Mather.

Additional records of wells in the sandstone area of Connecticut.

[These wells were drilled by C. L. Grant, who has furnished the records. They presumably derive their water from sandstone, though a few may be in trap.]

No.[a]	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Depth of well.	Depth to water.	Yield per minute.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Gallons.*
1	Berlin		New York, New Haven and Hartford R. R.	300	22	120
2	do		Berlin Brick Co	60	11	.....
3	do		do	70	8	.....
4	do		Yale Brick Co	100	19	11
5	Bloomfield		Mrs. A. S. Sage	86	18	14
6	do		M. J. Bradley	47	12	8
7	do		Grover Brown	31	17	13
8	do		Mrs. G. A. Cadwell	61	61	8
9	Farmington		Mrs. E. A. Smith	290	50	20
10	do		T. H. & L. C. Root	190	55	3
11	do		Lewis A. Storrs	208	41	25
12	do		Frank Hotchkiss	100	29	40
13	Hamden	Whitneyville	John H. Burton	50	10	15
14	do	do	W. F. Downer	67	27	7
15	do	do	Edw. Davis	56	9	10
16	do	do	Geo. W. Ives	65	13	8
17	do	do	Mr. Johnson	58	25	30
18	do	Mount Carmel	A. E. Woodruff	50	12	7
19	do	do	Chas. Wheeler	50	17	8
20	do	do	Sylvester Peck	36	21	6
21	do		Newton Archer	38	18	.....
22	do		Wm. Benham	68	28	3
23	Hartford		Hartford Woven Wire Mattress Co.	246	16	10
24	do		Retreat for Insane	180	24	20
25	do		W. C. Wade	125	11	50
*26	do		Ropkins & Co. Brewery	200	0	60
27	do		Long Bros	200	11	29
28	do		H. E. Patten	110	10	150
29	do		Hartford Light and Power Co	200	2	120
30	do		do	228	1½	150
31	do		do	201	1½	120
32	do		do	200	0	150

[a] For additional details, see page 128.

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Additional records of wells in the sandstone area of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Depth of well.	Depth to water.	Yield per minute.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Gallons.*
33	Hartford		Herold Capitol Brewing Co	300	Flows.	250
34	do		Allyn House	318	25	50
35	do		Geo. M. Brown	240	25	45
36	do		Brady Bros	159	15	15
37	do		D. F. Keenan	140	29	10
38	do		Keney Park	170	32	16
39	do		Hotoph & Carlson	155	25	12
40	do		Frank S. Tarbox	57	9	5
41	do		do	67	19	2
42	do		E. Q. McCune	110	23	12
43	do		Geo. F. Hubbard	37	0	7
44	do		do	62	22	14
45	do		Thos. E. Moore	60	20	3
46	do		W. S. Mather	37	0	
47	do		Wm. O'Brien	50	20	11
48	do		Addison & Impey	63	27	8
49	do		Johnson & Weeks	49	20	11
50	do		Wm. Rogers	110	75	5
51	do		Peter Peterson	50	10	9
52	do		A. Hepburn	50	11	8
53	do		C. L. Bailey	48	21	11
54	do		H. G. Abbey	35	17	7
55	do		Andrew Nason	28	12	5
56	do		B. L. Chappell	50	16	12
57	do		Geo. E. Hurd	50	11	8
58	do		M. H. Erickson	37	13	10
59	do		Dr. W. Crane	60	30	2
60	do		C. A. Green	50	12	6
61	do		E. B. Jerrum	50	15	11
62	do		O. Bengston	50	10	8
63	do		F. H. Seymour	70	30	8
64	do		Geo. J. Maher	65	18	13
65	do		A. M. Weber	75	25	5
66	do		R. Ballnson	53	5	9
67	Middletown		A. B. Calef	75	40	
68	New Britain		W. E. Bradley	40	18	
69	do		Dennis & Co	195	12	40
70	do		A. B. Johnson	200	38	32
71	do		do	60	7	12
72	do		J. P. Curtis	250	13	10
73	do		Wm. Derby	80	49	6
74	do		A. W. Stanley	237	18	5
75	do		Coburn Land and Lumber Co	173	1	47
76	New Haven		Geo. W. Ives & Son	50	Flows.	
77	do		do	200	3	10
78	do		A. B. Hendryx	254		65
79	do		Lion Brewery	103		60
80	do		National Wire Co	300	12	58
81	do		do	245	112	45
82	do		H. H. Olds & Co	75	35	
83	Newington		Center school district	67	18	20
84	do		E. E. Pimm	24	15	5
85	do		Mrs. S. F. Robbins	91	28	12
86	do		Newton Osborn	159		18
87	do		J. G. Paradise	73	21	12
88	North Haven		F. L. Stiles	83	14	35
89	do		I. L. Stiles & Son	102	6	30
90	Plainville		John Coughlin	28	2	
91	do		N. Terrell	50	12	8
92	do		P. Horan	48	22	
93	Rocky Hill		J. K. Green	25		4
94	Simsbury		W. L. Cushing	212	125	17
95	do	Tariffville	Connecticut Tobacco Corporation	331	36	30
96	do	do	Mrs. G. C. Willoughby	61	34	4
97	Southington		D. Green	66	24	5
98	do		Ætna Nut Co			
99	Suffield		E. A. Fuller	40	6	6
100	do		Dr. M. T. Newton	63	14	10
101	do		A. C. Harmon	45	6	3
102	do		David Guy	48	18	3
103	do		Second Baptist Church	60	13	4
104	do	West Suffield	Frank S. Root	135	9	12
105	Wallingford	Yalesville	G. I. Mix & Co	100	6	40
106	do	do	J. H. Yale	67	45	
107	do	do	C. W. Michaels	90	118	
108	do	Quinnipiac	C. T. Stevens	40	Flows.	4
109	West Hartford		Jas. Thompson	110	15	23
110	do		E. C. Wheaton	135	20	35
111	do		Mrs. Kate Gallagher	53	9	3

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Additional records of wells in the sandstone area of Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Depth of well.	Depth to water.	Yield per minute.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Gallons.*
112	West Hartford		Geo. V. Brickley	30	15	12
113	do		L. N. Burt	52	13	6
*114	do		P. H. Reilly	175	15	40
115	do		D. F. Crozier	100	13	30
116	do	Elmwood	Mrs. E. W. Talcott	51	23	8
117	do	do	Jas. H. Waldron	195	39	6
118	Wethersfield		J. H. Rabbett	30	2	12
119	do		Rev. Lynch	70	30	35
120	Windsor		C. D. Reed	101	12	18
121	do	Poquonock	Connecticut Valley Tobacco Co.	150	100	4

NOTES.

26. Depth, 200 feet; diameter, 6 inches; yield, 60 gallons a minute. The ordinary yield of the well is 25 gallons a minute and it flows if left standing. The water is too hard for boilers.

114. Sunk in the "Posterior" trap sheet, which at this locality is comparatively thin. The thickness of the trap has not been determined, but at least two-thirds, and possibly three-fourths, of the depth of the well must be in the "Posterior" shales which underlie the sheet, and it is very probable that the water does not come from the trap at all, but from the underlying shale.

WELLS IN TRAP.

Owing to the rugged topography of the main trap ridges few houses are built on them and consequently few wells have been drilled in rock of this character. In the vicinity of Hartford there are several wells which have been sunk directly into trap and obtain yields of 2 or 3 gallons a minute. The greater number of successful wells in rock of this type pass entirely through the trap and obtain their supplies from the underlying sandstone or shale.

All exposures of trap show an extraordinary development of jointing, and in cliffs, as at East Rock and West Rock in New Haven, the vertical joints cut the formation from top to bottom and usually show weathering, indicating the past action of water. In large trap exposures it is unusual to strike streams of water, which are so characteristic of the quarries in crystalline rocks, although it is said that in one of the Hartford quarries two days after a heavy rain water will begin to seep out of the joints at the base.

The field evidence indicates that the chances are small for obtaining water by drilling on the higher parts of the trap ridges, as the rock is so completely fractured at the surface as to allow the water to pass through and escape at lower levels, and at a short distance below the surface the joints are too tight to admit water in quantity. On such ridges, however, supplies may generally be obtained by shallow dug wells in the overlying drift.

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Some interesting wells in trap have been described[a] by M. L. Fuller and W. H. C. Pynchon, as follows:

W. E. Pratt [*Rocky Hill*].—This well is located in the thin "Posterior" sheet of trap. It was drilled in the bottom of an old open well, 20 feet deep, which entered the rock for a distance of 6 feet. From this point the well was drilled 30 feet through trap, when it broke into the underlying sedimentaries, which it pierced to the depth of 1½ feet. This well therefore gives a section of 14 feet of soil, 36 feet of trap, and 1½ feet of sedimentary rock—a total depth of 51½ feet. This brings the bottom of the well about 50 feet above the surface of Connecticut River, which flows by it only a few hundred feet eastward. The diameter of the well is 6 inches and the maximum amount of water obtainable is a little less than 1 gallon a minute. The well pumps dry in thirty minutes. The water is fair for drinking, but is excessively hard.

J. K. Green [*Rocky Hill*].—Depth of well, 26 feet; depth of water, 25 feet; diameter, 6 inches; yield not given. The well is in trap rock. Data by Grant.

Hotel Russwin [*New Britain*].—The depth of the well is 152 feet, and the depth of the water at the lowest 130 feet, but if the well is allowed to stand the water flows at the level of the engine-room floor, which is 10 feet below grade. The ordinary consumption is fully 10,000 gallons a day. The water is very pure and can be used for all purposes.

[*Wells at Cedar Mountain.*]—The wells * * * at Cedar Mountain, southwest of Hartford, * * * are on the property of Dr. Gordon W. Russell, who sunk the wells largely as an experiment and who has shown much interest in scientific matters. The mountain is a part of the ridge of the "Main" trap sheet, and has a maximum elevation of about 360 feet above the sea. Its western face is very steep, dropping 250 feet to the plain within a distance of two-fifths of a mile, and is actually precipitous near the summit. The eastern face slopes more gradually, dropping about 120 feet to the valley occupied by shales, about three-fifths of a mile distant. It is in all a typical trap ridge.

Well A is an ordinary open well and was dug to supply the needs of the farmhouse. It was opened 9 or 10 feet to the rock, but the water became shallow in summer. It was then sunk 1 or 2 feet into the loose, greatly jointed surface trap and has since given an abundance of water for domestic uses. The supply, however, fluctuates regularly with the wetness or dryness of the season. From the well mouth the mountain side with its drift covering rises steadily for two-fifths of a mile to the west till it reaches the crest, which is about 100 feet above the well. The supply is clearly the surface water contained in the soil and in the heavily jointed upper surface of the trap, the source also of a little stream which lies a little farther up the ridge.

Well B is located about 200 feet south of well A. It passes through 9 feet of soil and then through about 290 feet of trap rock, at which point the string of drilling tools wedged fast, possibly along a joint plane. The well is 6 inches in diameter. On illuminating it brightly for a considerable depth by light reflected from a mirror, it appeared that no water came into it except from the shattered upper surface of the trap sheet, as in well A. The drill had not entered the underlying sediments when the well was visited in 1902, notwithstanding the fact that the bottom of the well was much below the level of the western plain.

Well C is located about three-fourths of a mile farther south and a little farther east than the other two wells. It has a depth of 103 feet. It was thought from the residue brought up by the sand bucket that the well entered the sedimentary beds below, but in view of the record of well B and the thickness of the "Main" sheet this is extremely doubtful. Water was struck at a depth of 38 feet from the surface in a joint, the yield being 32 gallons an hour. At the present depth the well is capable of giving 90 gallons an hour, the water probably coming through joints from a level below the well bottom

[a] Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 110, 1905, pp. 88, 89, 100, 101, 103.

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and rising to within 25 feet of the surface. During the drilling light was reflected down the bore and water was seen coming in through the trap, and in the opinion of the driller, Mr. H. B. King, of Hartford, from the downhill side. However this may be, we have here a well near the summit of the mountain whose bottom is above the level of the lowlands on either side, with water coming in through the trap and rising to a point about 175 feet above the plain three-fourths of a mile to the west and about 70 feet above the valley one-fourth of a mile to the east. The top of the well is about 280 feet above sea level.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS.

YIELD OF WELLS.

The sedimentary rocks of Connecticut possess large storage capacity between strata, in joints, along faults, and within the rocks themselves, and it is but rarely that a well sunk into sandstone, conglomerate, or shale does not obtain water from one or all of these sources in sufficient amount for domestic purposes. No enormous supplies running into thousands of gallons a minute, such as are obtained elsewhere in the United States, are found, and in some parts of the State difficulty has been experienced in obtaining sufficient supplies for large manufacturing plants. Wells in sandstone offer the best chances for large supplies, shale coming second, and conglomerate third. A few wells in conglomerate at New Haven encountered dry rock from top to bottom of the drill hole. One well on George street, 500 feet deep, obtained no water after passing through the cover of glacial drift, and another well remained dry to a depth of 4,000 feet. Such wells should not be abandoned "without a thorough test of every water horizon, however small. The casing, if possible, should be raised above the level of the water-bearing bed, a pump inserted, and the supply measured. When it is impossible to remove the casing, it can be destroyed at the water horizon by a shot of nitroglycerine, which will also at the same time tend to loosen up the surrounding rock and increase the flow. Supplies have frequently been developed at horizons which were not at first thought worthy of testing and which were originally drilled through without stopping and cased off."[a] Of the 194 wells recorded on pages 116–123, only 11, or 5.6 per cent, failed to obtain 2 gallons a minute, the minimum amount desired for domestic purposes. Drillers are naturally averse to reporting well failures, yet considering the number of successful wells of which no records are available the above percentage is probably close to the facts.

The average yield of 112 wells in sandstone reported in the tables is 27½ gallons a minute, the largest being 350 gallons and the smallest two-thirds of a gallon. The 107 wells included in the supplementary list furnished by C. L. Grant (pp. 126–128) have an average yield of 26 gallons. As a rule, the well that encounters the largest number of joints and bedding planes has the largest supply of water, and there

[a] Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 110, 1905.

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is, therefore, an increased yield with increased depth. This statement, however, is true only for wells less than about 300 feet in depth (see below), and many exceptions are to be noted. A well which strikes a favorable bedding plane between sandstone and shale, or drains water from a contact of trap and sandstone, or strikes a fault zone may yield large amounts at slight depths. In fact, the water moves so freely through the rock that wells sunk to lower levels or located more advantageously may drain a neighboring well, thus making it useless. (See pp. 108–109.)

The abundant and uniformly distributed rainfall of Connecticut (see p. 24) and the freedom of circulation of ground water in the Triassic sediments account for the slight variation in yield throughout the year. Few drilled wells in rock show seasonal variations. A few record a decrease in summer; in several others the supply has increased since the wells were dug. Mr. Grant is of the opinion that "in general, the wells in the Triassic area have increased their flow with age." This seems to be due to the enlargement of seams and joints caused by the washing out of the decomposed rock ("clay"). "Water from black shale," says Mr. Grant, "clears up in about two hours, but that from red shale remains cloudy for a week or two." In many wells the water has become clearer as the years have passed. The height at which water stands in the well is also remarkably uniform.

DEPTH OF WELLS.

Two geologic myths seem to have attained the dignity of facts in the popular mind; one is that ore veins increase in richness with increasing depth, the other that water is more abundant and of better quality in proportion as it comes from greater depth. So far as Connecticut's water supply is concerned, the facts are not in accord with popular opinion. Though water is drawn from sandstones at all depths between the surface and 800 feet, yet the greatest number of failures are in wells exceeding 400 feet in depth. The reason for decreased supply at greater depth is the decrease in the number of joints and the tightening of both joints and bedding planes. The average depth of 287 wells, including the three deepest, one of them 4,000 feet, is 144 feet. At $2.26 a foot, which is the average cost of 67 wells, the cost of the average well is $335.44. The depth to the principal water horizon is even less than the depth of the wells. In 63 wells with an average depth of 127 feet the principal source of water was 97 feet below the surface. The depth to the surface of the water in 144 wells in sandstone averages 23 feet. Of the 314 wells recorded in sandstone, shale, and conglomerate, 75 per cent are less than 200 feet deep, 90 per cent less than 300 feet, and only 5.6 per cent more than 400 feet; 47 per cent, including some of the best wells in the Connecticut Valley, are less than 100 feet deep.

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In view of these facts and in consideration of the increased difficulty and cost of deep-well construction, it is good practice to abandon a well that has not obtained satisfactory supplies at 250 to 300 feet. Two or three wells 200 feet deep could be drilled at the cost of one 500-foot well, and the prospect of obtaining water would be greatly increased. In case a well is abandoned, the new location should be as far as possible from the old. In fractured rock favorable conditions may be found a few hundred feet distant. Wells in shale may be sunk to greater depth before abandoning the site, as is indicated by the fact that of sixteen deep wells in shale two are between 100 and 200 feet deep, five between 200 and 300 feet, four between 300 and 400 feet, two between 400 and 500 feet, and three more than 500 feet.[a]

QUALITY OF WATER.

The table of analyses shows that the composition of water in Triassic strata varies greatly, for wells only a few hundred feet apart may show marked differences in mineralization. One reason for this can be traced primarily to the inclination of the strata. As the rocks dip eastward at an angle of 15° or more, the area tributary to each well is rather small; a 500-foot well, for instance, would have a supply basin of considerably less than one-sixth of a square mile. Therefore different wells are supplied from different sets of beds, which differ from each other in their composition and consequently in their effect on the water passing through them. In general, the waters of the Triassic are so highly mineralized as to be undesirable for boilers without purification, thus strongly contrasting with those obtained from wells in crystalline rock. (See p. 168.) They are not too hard for cooling, washing, and certain other manufacturing purposes, nor for domestic use. Many wells show 500 to 2,500 parts per million of dissolved solids, including not only incrusting carbonates, but also the more undesirable sulphates. The water percolating through sandstone and shale is usually harder than that in joints and in bedding planes, and water of different quality may come from each stratum.

TEMPERATURE.

The temperature of well waters is determined by the depth from which they are drawn. At depths less than 50 feet the temperature of the water will roughly vary with the temperature of the air, which for Connecticut is 45° for the spring season, 67° in the summer, 51° in the fall, and 36° in the winter.[b] Below about 50 feet the temperature increases at the rate of 1° for each 60 feet.

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[a] Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 110, 1905, p. 99.

[b] These figures are based on the mean seasonal temperatures of Storrs, New Haven, and Cream Hill, combined, for the years 1893-1903, 1873-1903, and 1897-1907, respectively, as given on pages 24, 25.

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HEIGHT OF WATER IN WELLS.

Water in wells tends to reach a certain level, which remains constant with the exception of slight seasonal variations and changes produced by pumping. The height at which this water level stands depends on the character and permanency of the supply. In some wells the water stands at the rock surface, in others above or below that surface, and in a few it is under hydrostatic pressure and reaches the earth's surface as a flow. The topographic location is another factor in determining water level in wells, for, as shown in the table below, the water in valleys tends to rise above the rock floor, whereas about half of the wells on hills and slopes maintain a level within the rock. Considered as a whole, the water level in the Triassic sandstone stands 23 feet below the surface of the ground.

Height of water in wells.

Location.	Number of wells averaged.	Percentage with water level—		
		Below rock surface.	Above rock surface.	Even with rock surface.
Hills	28	46.4	50	3.6
Valleys	59	28.8	67.8	3.4
Slopes	29	48.3	44.8	6.9

FLOWING WELLS.

As stated on page 49, the primary conditions for flowing wells are (*a*) strata capable of holding large amounts of water, overlain by strata which are relatively impermeable; (*b*) outcrops of the strata where they may receive the surface water, and (*c*) a suitable dip to the rock. All these conditions are present in the Triassic areas of Connecticut. Sandstone and shale are interstratified, forming the couple which produces artesian wells in the Dakotas, New Jersey, Texas, and elsewhere. Lava flows alternate with the sandstones and shales, a condition which makes an artesian basin in parts of Idaho.[a] The edges of the water-bearing strata are well exposed, the rainfall is ample, and there is a dip to the strata of 15° or more to the southeast. Under normal conditions the Connecticut lowland would therefore form an unusually good artesian basin, and wells sunk anywhere along the western border of the Triassic area would procure large supplies, as shown in figure 19. This opportunity of obtaining artesian wells is almost entirely destroyed by two circumstances. First, the region is crossed by a series of faults and the strata are broken into huge blocks uplifted on the west side. The continuity of the water-bearing beds is therefore destroyed. But, even under these conditions, artesian

[a] Russell, I. C., Bull. U. S. Geol. Survey No. 199, 1902, pp. 178-180.

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basins of moderate extent (fig. 20) would be present were it not for the fact that the strata between the fault lines are cut by joints which

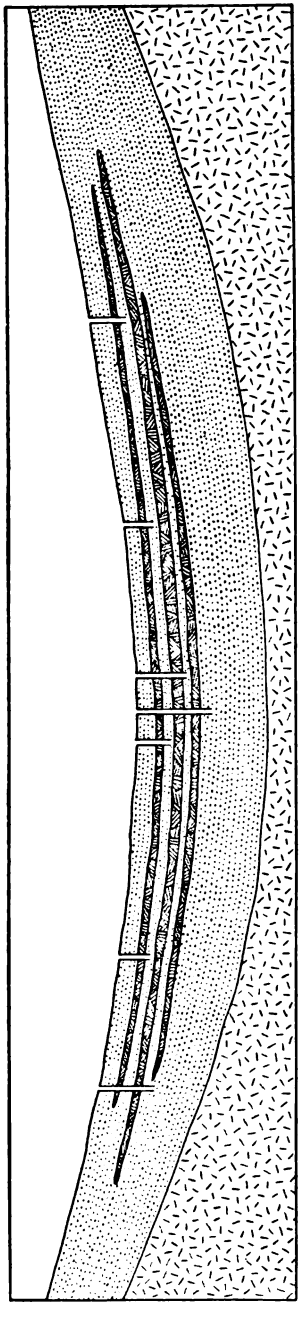

FIGURE 19.—Section of the Connecticut Triassic area as a synclinal basin—conditions favorable for artesian wells.

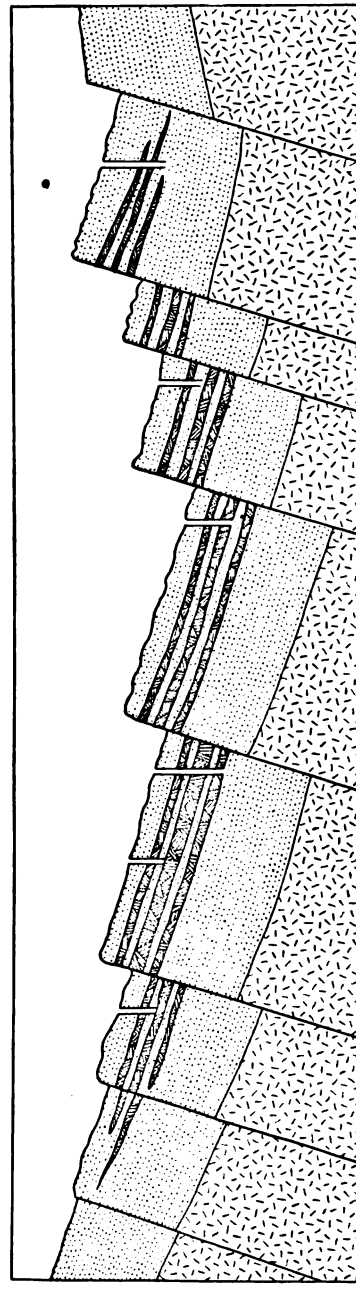

FIGURE 20.—Section of the Connecticut Triassic area as a simple faulted monocline—conditions favorable for several small artesian basins.

run in all directions and are but short distances apart, several being present in each 100 feet (fig. 21). The continuity of the beds is thus

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further disturbed and the existence of unbroken beds, either as water bearers or water retainers is made impossible. All the strata, including the lavas, have taken part in this faulting and jointing, with the result that instead of numerous flowing wells throughout the region, there are a few the waters of which rise slightly above the surface. Some of the flowing wells derive their water from local bedding planes in rock; the others from the contact of rock with the cover of glacial till.

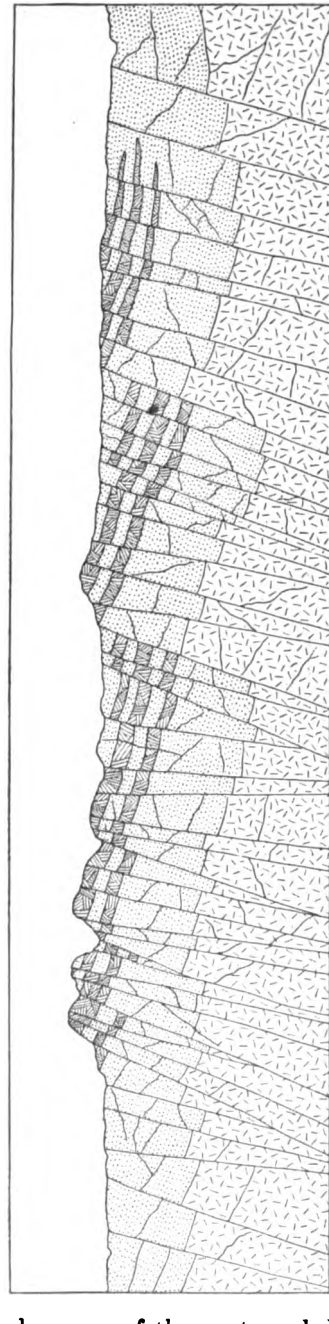

FIGURE 21.—Section showing actual condition of the Connecticut Triassic area—faulting and jointing developed to such an extent as to preclude the possibility of large artesian basins.

LOCATION OF WELLS.

Two considerations will usually control the location of wells—the amount and the quality of the water desired. To insure good quality requires a location selected with reference to freedom from contamination by drainage from barns, cesspools, houses, factories, etc. High ground with a surface cover of glacial material is a better location than bare rock. A well in low ground will usually yield more water at less expense, but the danger of contamination is greater. When it is proposed to construct a well, the condition of existing wells in that vicinity or in the same rock type should be studied with care. The direction, opening, continuity, and number of joints in the rock should be observed; also the dip or inclination of the strata and the presence of beds of shale or trap.

It is to be remembered that water in bedding planes passes up as well as down an inclined surface. The usual experience, as stated by C. L. Wright, of Augerville, is to find water at less depths on eastern slopes of hills than on western slopes, because of the eastward dip of the strata. There are numerous examples of both wells and springs,

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however, which indicate that water flows up the slope after being fed into the bedding planes by joints. A well at Thompsonville, illustrating movement of this type, is described on page 124. The water in this well is 25 feet higher than the water in Connecticut River, near by, which might otherwise be its source; the water-bearing bed does not outcrop farther east; and there seems to be no source of supply other than joints or faults. A well at the "old Talcott tower," near the edge of a 700-foot cliff, is believed to derive its meager supply from water moving up the 15° slope from the east. The hundreds of springs located along the western faces of low sandstone ridges that derive their water from a combination of joints and upward-sloping bedding planes may be illustrated by a spring on the estate of A. I. Ward, at Mount Carmel. (See fig. 22.)

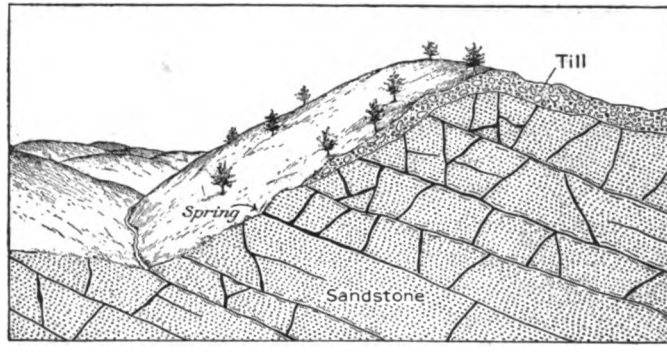

FIGURE 22.—Spring deriving its supply from joints and upward-sloping bedding planes.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

Yields of water at various depths in the rock below the covering of surface material.

["Vol." = average yield in gallons per minute; "No." = number of records from which the average is taken.]

Depth in feet.	Vol.	No.	Depth in feet.	Vol.	No.
0–30	4.7	3	110–200	27.6	53
30–50	14.8	40	200–300	56.4	41
50–70	11.1	44	300–400	40.7	7
70–90	17.7	21	400–500	185.0	6
90–110	20.3	29	500–650	40.0	5

The foregoing table requires a little explanation, especially in regard to wells more than 400 feet in depth, where the recorded yield of 185 gallons a minute does not represent a true average. This estimate is the average of the yield of five wells in Hartford and one in South Manchester, in both of which places unusual conditions prevail. Moreover, the principal source of water of these wells is at a less depth than 400 feet, so that the same yields would have been obtained if drilling had stopped at 300 to 400 feet. Considered in this light, the data from wells 400 to 500 feet in depth indicate the presence of

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water in bedding planes down to 400 feet and should go to swell the average yield of wells 200 to 300 feet and 300 to 400 feet deep. The figures for wells more than 500 feet in depth likewise convey a wrong impression of the relation of yield to depth. The five wells included in the table report yields of 1, 2, 7, 75, and 125 gallons a minute. In all these wells the principal source of water is less than 300 feet and in one well less than 50 feet below the surface. When these facts are taken into account the yield of wells more than 500 feet in depth drops to an average of less than 10 gallons a minute.

Average yields of wells in various locations.

Location.	Average yield (gallons per minute).	Number of records.
Valleys	64.3	6
Hills	44.4	24
Slopes	17.7	14
Plains	42.7	46

Relation of level at which water stands in wells in various locations to surface of rock which marks bottom of overlying drift. [a]

Location.	Number.	Percentage of wells with water level below rock surface.	Percentage of wells with water level above rock surface.	Percentage of wells with water level even with rock surface.
Hills	28	46.4	50.0	3.6
Valleys	8	12.5	87.5	0.0
Slopes	29	48.3	44.8	6.9
Plains	51	31.3	64.7	4.0

[a] A summary of the results for all wells may be found on p. 133.

Average depth from surface to water level in the well.

Location.	Depth to water.	Number of records.
	Feet.	
Hills	31.9	37
Valleys	16.9	10
Slopes	21.2	26
Plains	19.9	53

Average depths, in feet, of surface material, of rock, and of the entire well for the records at hand, exclusive of wells more than 400 feet in depth and of wells known to be dry.

Location.	Average depth of surface material.	Average depth in rock.	Average total depth.	Number of records.
Valleys	82.5	199.5	282.0	6
Hills	39.4	73.9	113.3	30
Slopes	20.4	95.1	115.5	22
Plains	39.3	93.8	133.1	50

NOTE.—Average total depth of all these wells is 161 feet.

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CHAPTER VI.

WATER IN THE GLACIAL DRIFT.

INTRODUCTION.

Exposed rock surfaces in Connecticut are confined largely to hill summits, cliffs, river valleys, and the shore line, and their combined area probably amounts to less than one-tenth of 1 per cent of the 4,965 square miles constituting the area of the State. Where rock outcrops are absent, glacial drift forms the surface covering. The three classes of glacial material in which ground water occurs are till, stratified drift, and clay.

CHARACTER AND WATER CAPACITY OF DRIFT.

TILL.

Till varies in texture from loosely compacted bowlders a few inches to several feet in diameter to a firm, dense, securely cemented mass of small rock fragments and clay, popularly called "hardpan." The composition of an average deposit of till is shown by the following mechanical analysis of the so-called Triassic stony loam from Bloomfield:

Mechanical analysis of stony loam from Bloomfield.[a]

	Diameter of grains.	Per cent.
	Millimeters.	
Gravel	2 -1	2
Coarse sand	1 - .5	3.35
Medium sand	.5 - .25	8.60
Fine sand	.25 - .15	31.25
Very fine sand	.1 - .05	34.22
Silt	.05 - .01	4.35
Fine silt	.01 - .005	6.20
Clay	.005- .0001	6.57
Loss at 110° C.		1.36
Loss on ignition		2.03

[a] Field Operations, Div. Soils, U. S. Dept. Agr., for 1899, p. 131.

The soil represented by the foregoing analysis is the fine earth after coarse gravel and bowlders, varying in size from an inch to 7 or 8 feet

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in diameter, have been removed. The amount of gravel and undecomposed rock invariably exceeds 5 per cent, and may exceed 50 per cent.

The heterogeneous character of till makes it impossible to estimate its water-bearing capacity for any large area. The amount of clay present, the size, shape, and composition of the constituent bowlders, and the degree of compactness vary within wide limits, and therefore determinations of absorptive ratios apply only to the sample tested. Determinations of water capacity are made still more uncertain by the presence of irregular deposits of sand and gravel included within the till. The loosely compacted till has practically the capacity of conglomerate; the "hardpan" variety is almost as impervious as shale.

A mass of till collected near Yale Field, New Haven, was found after five days of continuous drying to weigh 22 pounds. After soaking in water for one day and being allowed to drain the added water had increased its weight to 24.87 pounds, a gain of 2.87 pounds, which showed an absorption percentage of 11.55, or 3.46 quarts to a cubic foot of till. This is probably not far from the average capacity of till in Connecticut.

STRATIFIED DRIFT.

Stratified drift consists of sands and gravels with local clay bands and is composed of rounded waterworn fragments of the more resistant rocks, like granite, trap, and quartzite, together with an abundance of grains of quartz, mica, garnet, magnetite, etc. It owes its origin to streams, and especially to the water produced by the final melting of the continental ice sheet. As contrasted with till, stratified drift occurs in layers of various degrees of coarseness, depending on the velocity of the stream which deposited the débris.

It must not be supposed that the stratified drift presents uniform conditions over large areas, for there are several types of the drift, each varying in texture, structure, and topographic appearance, in accordance with their method of formation. Flood-plain deposits and terraces contain numerous fine clayey layers. Delta deposits made in bodies of standing water exhibit strata of sand, gravel, and silt inclined at various angles, and the different sets of beds contain water in different amounts.[a] The grains composing sand and gravel come into contact with one another, but are so placed that there is much unoccupied space between them. Sand is practically sandstone with cementing material removed and the water capacity proportionately enlarged. As a reservoir of ground water, stratified drift is therefore very important. Such material has been found to contain an amount of water equal to over 30 per cent of its volume.

[a] Crosby, W. O., Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 145, 1905, pp. 177-178.

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The proportions of different sizes of grains in the average sand of the New Haven plain, are shown by samples from four localities analyzed by Freeman Ward, as follows:

Size of grains in sand from New Haven plain.

Size of grains.	1.	2.	3.	4.
$\frac{1}{4}$ inch to $\frac{1}{8}$ inch	0.9	2.3	0.6	0.8
$\frac{1}{8}$ inch to $\frac{1}{16}$ inch	.7	2.7	1.6	1.6
$\frac{1}{16}$ inch to $\frac{1}{32}$ inch	1.1	10.0	5.5	6.3
Less than $\frac{1}{32}$ inch	97.3	85.0	92.3	91.3
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Rain water is freely imbibed by stratified drift, and accordingly the surface dries very shortly after showers, and this material furnishes little water to streams. The water, however, stands close to the surface and the sands of plains and kames are thoroughly saturated. On the North Haven sand plain there is "plenty of moisture a few inches below the surface, even in a protracted drought.[a]

CLAY.

The clays of Connecticut are largely the result of the deposition of fine material in lakes of glacial origin. They are accordingly stratified and usually contain layers of "strong clay" interbedded with sandy clay, quicksand, and sand of coarser textures. Clay consists of minute particles of kaolin, quartz, feldspar, mica, iron ores, etc., and when compacted under pressure these fragments are so nearly in contact as to give little pore space. However, the very small openings between the grains permit the access of much water, for each space acts as a capillary tube and the clay is expanded. The fine-grained clays, therefore, absorb and retain large amounts of water. That abundant water is present is indicated by the mud cracks in exposed clay surfaces and by the shrinkage which takes place on drying—an amount often over 10 per cent. The total amount of water in the brick clays of Connecticut is usually between 30 and 40 per cent. Most of the commercial clays of the State "contain enough water to make them highly plastic, so that they can be tempered without addition of more water."[b]

THE DRIFT AS A WATER RESERVOIR.

The mantle of glacial drift spread over Connecticut is perhaps the most important single factor in the ground-water supply of the State, because it contains abundant water in itself and controls the supply

[a] Britton, Bull. Torrey Bot. Club, vol. 30, 1903, pp. 571-620.

[b] Loughlin, G. F., The clays and clay industries of Connecticut: Bull. Connecticut Geol. and Nat. Hist. Survey, No. 4, 1905, p. 63.

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of water to the underlying rocks. The bed rock exposed on the summits and sides of hills is not in a position to absorb water. It is apparent that the greater part of any rainfall on such surfaces would run off immediately; in fact, a locality where even 2 per cent of the precipitation was absorbed by the rock would be exceptional. Even where there are wide-open cracks on the rock surface, the greater part of the water would run off before it could be absorbed by the few joints, which, not far below the surface, are so tight as to allow very slow passage to the water.

On the other hand, where the rock is covered by glacial material the water does not run off rapidly but is absorbed by layers of porous sandy soil, from which in turn a considerable portion of the precipitation passes down into the rock fractures. Numerous shallow-dug wells indicate that the lower portion of the drift is in a saturated condition, being always ready to supply water to joints or faults or bedding planes below. The saturated belt in the surface material forms a constant reservoir, kept filled by uniform precipitation, from which water is delivered to the rocks to compensate for the amount removed by springs and wells. The sandy and gravelly portions of the drift are the most important reservoirs for supplying water to rock seams, for they carry a large quantity of water and allow ready passage; the clayey till, which may hold nearly as much water, allows very slow passage. The character of the overlying drift is, therefore, by its difference in permeability, largely determinative of the amount of water supplied to the underlying rock.

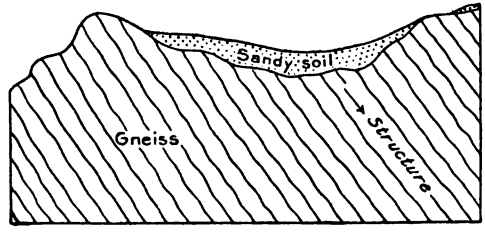

FIGURE 23.—Section of hilltop showing suitable catchment and reservoir conditions for a water supply to the rock fractures.

The condition of the rock surface is another factor in the absorption of the water. At many localities the rock is marked by minor irregularities, due to a scooping out of the rock by glacial erosion (see fig. 23), or to a dam of impervious glacial material. These small depressions in the rock serve as guiding channels to the circulation of ground water in the drift, and joints opening into these depressions have better opportunity for the collection of water than those intersecting the rock surface at intermediate and higher points. Many depressed areas which have no outlet occur in the rock. In such basins the water collects and has no escape by seepage into rock joints, and evaporation is relatively unimportant where the drift has an appreciable thickness.

Vertical joints are evidently more important than horizontal joints in giving opportunity for the entrance of subsurface water from the

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drift. Owing to their parallelism to the rock surface many of the horizontal joints pitch downward when they reach the ground surface and consequently do not offer good conditions for the entrance of water, although in exposures of bare rock the fractures lying at low angles tend to absorb more of the precipitation than the vertical joints.

WATER BED AT CONTACT OF ROCK AND DRIFT.

The glacial drift rests directly upon bed rock without any intervening soil or disintegrated material. (See fig. 24.) There is a sharply drawn line of contact between the till, stratified drift, or clay and the gneiss, schist, sandstone, or other rock beneath. The contact forms a water bed, the supplies from which are larger and more permanent than those of any bedding plane in the Triassic sediments or set of joints in the crystalline rocks. As shown above, the drift is filled with water, which percolates downward more rapidly than it can be imbibed by the rocks. The result is an accumulation of water at the rock surface which brings the drift to the point of saturation. In this way the layer immediately above the rock is supplied with water to 30 to 40 per cent of its volume, an amount equal to 2.24 to 2.99 gallons a cubic foot. Wells sunk to the contact of drift and rock show a large yield. Three wells, owned by the Bradley & Hubbard Manufacturing Company, at Meriden, reach rock at depths of 203, 208, and 256 feet, and have a combined yield of 100 gallons a minute.

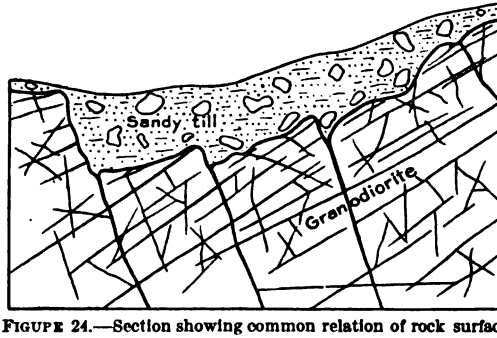

FIGURE 24.—Section showing common relation of rock surface to overlying drift.

WELLS IN TILL AND STRATIFIED DRIFT.

Probably three-fourths of all the wells in the State are shallow, open pits of large diameter, sunk in glacial material. (See fig. 25.)

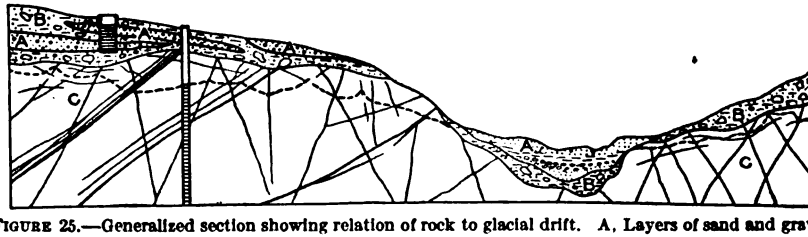

FIGURE 25.—Generalized section showing relation of rock to glacial drift. A, Layers of sand and gravel, partly saturated with water; B, bowlder clay; C, crystalline rock.

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Owing to the uniform rainfall, these wells yield sufficient water for domestic purposes, but the supply is uncertain and is subject to marked seasonal and annual variation. The data collected for this report, taken in connection with investigations made by the State board of health, indicate that such wells are not to be recommended either for large yields or for unqualified purity.

WATER HORIZON.

The principal water horizons in glacial drift are the porous sandy beds confined between beds of material more or less impervious. The water-bearing layer may be sand or gravel, or even clay containing a small proportion of sand, and it may lie between layers of till and stratified drift, between different members of a stratified-drift series, or between the till and bed rock. At Stafford Springs John McCarty finds that wells in drift, which average about 20 feet in depth, are sunk through a top covering of loam, followed by 2 to 10 feet of sand and gravel, and then by a layer of hardpan 5 to 20 feet in thickness. The water comes either from the sand above the hardpan or, more commonly, from the contact between the hardpan and the underlying rock. In many places the till acts as a confining bed to retain the water stored in both sand and gravel. In fact, the hardpan variety of till exerts its chief influence as an impervious bed to limit the percolation of ground water. This relation is illustrated by the well of Mr. Coppus, at South Willington (see fig. 26), where the water enters in quantity at the junction of sand and underlying till. The most favorable water horizon, however, is in the drift, the zone lying immediately over bed rock, as explained on page 142.

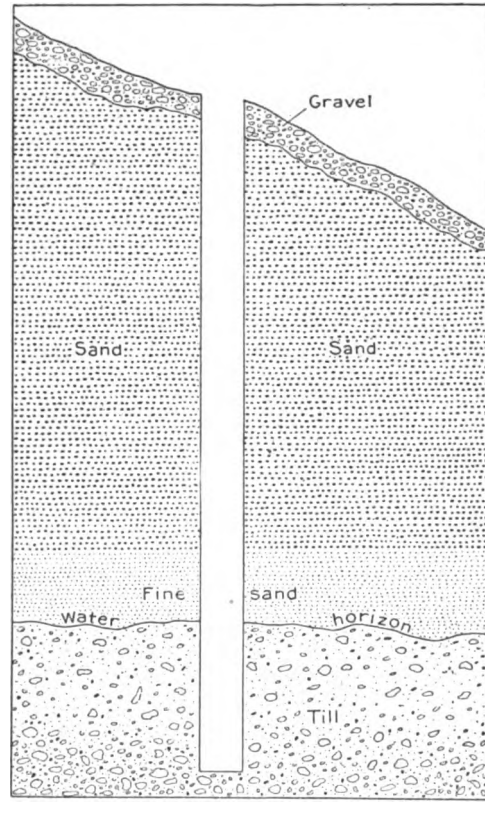

FIGURE 26.—Diagram of well at South Willington, showing water horizon at contact of till and stratified drift.

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There is usually sufficient variation in the texture of the stratified drift to furnish pervious and impervious layers in contact. A slight variation in fineness of grain may be all that is necessary to concentrate the water along one plane, but the most favorable relations exist where sand overlies clay. In the brick yards at Montowese, Berlin, and North Haven water is present in quantity along the upper surface of the clay beds, and in other localities sandy layers between beds of clay furnish abundant water supplies. The whole North Haven sand plain is a good illustration of this relation. The area is underlain at a depth of 20 to 30 feet by beds of clay 5 to 20 feet thick, on top of which lie sand and gravel. Water sinks so readily into the sand that vegetation is practically absent from this area, but wells sunk to the clay bed find abundant water, and where the strata are shown in sections, as along Quinnipiac River, there is a line of springs and seepages. In certain localities the bed of clay holds the water under hydrostatic pressure, and when this cover is pierced by a well the water rises nearly or quite to the surface.

Wells sunk in till which does not contain sandy layers have no definite water horizon. In such wells the water is seen to form as a film and to drip from the surface, or to ooze out in small amounts around some of the larger bowlders. The circulation of water in such material is much retarded, and the wells are accordingly likely to vary much in yield.

DEPTH AND YIELD.

The average depth of the recorded wells in till is 24 feet, which is probably 5 feet too much, as an average for the State, because of the omission of a large proportion of shallow dug wells. The greatest depth reported is 151 feet and the least 7 feet. A few wells located at the contact of drift and bed rock flow at the surface.

The average depth of 83 wells in stratified drift is 48.3 feet, a figure probably 10 feet in excess of an average made by including several thousand shallower wells sunk in this material. The deepest well in drift is 110 feet deep and the least depth recorded is 7 feet, but the tables do not include numerous wells with depths of less than 10 feet that are known to exist.

These wells, both in till and stratified drift, probably procure all the water necessary for domestic purposes, for which they are largely used; by sinking to greater depths they could obtain much larger supplies. The average thickness of the drift cover over the sandstones is 38.4 feet and over the crystalline rocks 36 feet, an average of about 37 feet for the State. It is readily seen that the wells in till, with an average depth of 24 feet, do not penetrate to great depths in this glacial material. The wells in stratified drift are sunk deeper and take more advantage of the opportunity offered to procure large supplies from a considerable thickness of drift. In case more

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water is desired, it is advisable to sink a well in drift to bed rock or a few feet into the fractured upper surface of the rock itself. These are the conditions, as explained above (p. 142) under which the largest yield of water may be obtained with a minimum depth of well.

The number of wells recorded of various depths in the till and stratified drift is shown in the subjoined statement.

Depths of wells in till and stratified drift.

Depth, in feet.	Number of wells.		Depth, in feet.	Number of wells.	
	Till.	Stratified drift.		Till.	Stratified drift.
0–30	84	31	70–90	1	7
30–50	8	21	90–110	.....	6
50–70	1	9	110–200	2	5

QUALITY OF WATER.

Till and stratified drift, alike, are composed of fragments of all sorts of rock, and it is therefore to be expected that the quality of the water should vary within wide limits, with reference to both depth and location, and that water from different depths and from different locations should be unlike in character. The waters of wells in till derived from sandstone and limestone are sure to contain compounds of calcium, magnesium, etc., making them hard, while wells sunk in drift composed of fragments of crystalline rocks are much more likely to yield soft water. Wells in till are more liable to have hard water than those in stratified drift, because the water circulates slowly and with difficulty in material of this sort and, accordingly, has an opportunity to take larger amounts of mineral matter into solution. The tables of wells in till show 45 yielding hard water, 38 soft, and 11 medium in a total of 94 wells. In stratified drift 25 wells are reported to yield hard water, 30 soft, and 4 medium out of a total of 59.

Most wells in drift, especially if they are shallow and open and of large diameter, contain impurities. Wells of this character, especially if they have been dug a number of years and are located near buildings, are so liable to contamination that an examination of the water should be made at short intervals. In thickly settled districts the water in shallow wells is often dangerous. Many wells near the beach sunk in stratified drift give brackish water, although a number of instances to the contrary may be cited. Wells in till are much less liable to contamination by salt water, and a number of such wells are located along the shore in close proximity to the Sound. Two wells at Saybrook Point are reported to contain fresh water except during dry seasons, when the water becomes low and brackish.

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WATER LEVEL.

The wells in till have an average depth of 24 feet and those in stratified drift 48.3 feet so far as recorded. The average depth to water in these wells, however, is 10 feet for the till and 20.6 feet for the stratified drift. If the thousands of unrecorded wells in the State were added to the list the average distance of water from the surface would probably be still less. These figures indicate the freedom of circulation of water, especially in the stratified drift, for the principal water horizon is at a depth of 35.5 feet and the average rise of water in the well is therefore 15 feet. Unlike the wells in sandstone and crystalline rocks, the wells in till and stratified drift are subject to great variation of water level, both annual and seasonal, and sometimes daily.

The average variation of water level of wells in till recorded on pages 148–150 is 12 feet, sufficient to render many shallow wells valueless in dry seasons. Most of these wells have a regular annual period of maximum supply in late winter or spring, when they are full or overflowing. Single showers often raise the water level because of the added supply, but much more because of pressure on the air contained in the soil. Sudden rises of water in wells amounting to several feet are frequently reported, under circumstances where the rainfall could not have had time to enter the well through the drift and where the pressure of soil air was amply sufficient to account for the phenomenon. However, it is usually impossible to tell in any particular case, how much of the rise is due to infiltration and how much to the pressure applied to the air occupying the space between the grains. The wells of Sperry & Barnes, at New Haven, fluctuate in harmony with the level of water in the Sound, rising sometimes 10 inches in advance of the tide. The change in level is probably not due to the forcing of salt water toward the well, but rather to a squeezing of the fresh water from the pores of the sand, owing to the weight of the tons of water piled up on the shore.

In stratified drift the fluctuation of the water level is not so marked, owing doubtless to the greater ease of circulation in the loose-textured sands and gravels. Sudden rises, however, due to air pressure, as explained above, are reported.

The relation of rainfall to the fluctuation of water level in stratified drift is well shown by experiments conducted at the Yale Medical School, New Haven.[a] The well in which measurements were taken is sunk in sand at 146 York street, and the rain gage was located on the roof of the Medical School building on the adjacent lot, and read on the 15th of each month. As shown by the table below, the greatest depth of water at any time was 7.15 feet and the least 5.50 feet, showing a variation during the year of 1.65 feet.

[a] Report Connecticut State Board of Health for 1889–90, p. 282.

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Rainfall and variations in ground water at New Haven, 1889–90.

Month.	Rainfall.	Depth from surface to water.	Depth of water.
	Inches.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*
November	5.16		
December	6.54	21.70	7.15
January	.87	22	6.85
February	3.96	22.35	6.50
March	2.87	21.90	6.95
April	7.13	21.70	7.15
May	3.64	21.90	6.95
June	4.36	21.85	.7
July	2.50	22.70	6.15
August	5.23	23	5.85
September	4.21	23.35	5.50
October	6.21	23.40	5.45
November	5.16	23	5.85
	57.84		

COST OF WELLS.

Of 82 wells in stratified drift 28 are drilled, 22 are driven, and 32 are dug. The average cost of 6-inch drilled wells is about $3.50 a foot; of 1½-inch driven wells, 70 cents a foot; and of 3-foot dug wells, $3.15 a foot.

Wells in till have an average inside diameter of 3 feet and an outside diameter of 6 feet. They are usually lined with field stone and cost an average of $3.10 a foot.

RECORDS OF WELLS IN TILL.

The following table comprises the available records of Connecticut wells in till.

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Records of wells in till in Connecticut.[a]

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Diameter.	Depth.	Depth to water level.	Quality.	Use.	Cost.	Remarks.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*				
*1	Andover		E. D. White	7½	17	1-4		Domestic	$100	
2	do		W. Kingsbury		24	Var.	Hard	do		
3	do	Andover	—— Town	3	22	12	do	General	150	
*4	Ashford	North Ashford	George A. Keach	8	7	2	Soft	Domestic		
*5	Barkhamsted	Barkhamsted	W. F. Beach	3	16	Var.	do	Stock		
*6	Bethlehem		G. C. Stone	5	12	6+	do			
7	do		A. T. Minor	6	23		do			
8	do		F. H. Thompson	8	27	3-20	do	Domestic, stock	50	
9	Bolton		C. F. Summer		23	6+	Hard		35	
*10	do		M. W. Sperry	3½	27	10+	do	Domestic		
11	do	Bolton Center	C. M. Perry	6	18	5-10	do	do	45	
12	Canaan	Falls Village	Henry Brinton	4	16	2-8	do	do		
13	do	do	Walter Kellogg	Top, 4; bottom, 8.	22	5-16	do	do		
14	do	do	H. B. Smith	3½	18	14	do			
15	do		J. N. Van Deusen	3	16	4-10	do	Domestic	25	
16	Canton	Collinsville	S. Gibson	3	24	14		do		
17	do	do	Miss E. White	2	30		Hard	do		
18	Chaplin		C. E. Chester	3½	35	30	Soft	do		
19	Eastford	Phœnixville	M. F. Latham		30		do	do		
20	Franklin	North Franklin	A. R. Race	3½	11	7	do	do		
*21	do	do	do	10	14		do	do	53	
22	Chatham	East Hampton	H. G. Clark	4	8	5	do	do	25	
23	do	do	H. D. Chapman	3	15	Var.	do	do	75	
24	do	do	L. S. Carpenter	4	15	5	do	do	25	
25	do	do	T. S. Brown	6	22	10-16	Hard	do	40	
26	do	do	S. D. Barton	3	16	5-12	Medium	do	35	
*27	do	do	L. H. Goff	3	25	6-24	do	do	30	
28	Columbia		E. D. Dewey	Top, 2½; bottom, 4.	35	5+	do	do		
*29	do		S. D. West	4	13	3-8	Hard, iron	Domestic, stock		
30	do		H. C. Isham	3	27	12	Hard		30	
31	Eastford	Phœnixville	G. R. Dickey	3	20	4-16	do			Stoned down 3 feet.
32	Fairfield		B. F. Pease	4	12	5	Soft	Domestic		150 gallons a day; easily lowered.
*33	Goshen	West Goshen	W. H. Wadhams	2½	18	2-14	Hard	do		
34	do	do	H. G. Wright	4	15	Var.	Soft	do		
35	do		E. Carlisle	3	15		do	do		
36	do		Lyman Hall	10	20	3-13	Hard	do	75	Stoned throughout.
37	Greenwich		L. M. Close	5	18	10	do	Stock		Water comes from clay.
38	do	Stanwich	S. R. Close	4	24	Var.	Soft	Domestic		Temperature 54° F.

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*39	Groton	Mystic	S. G. Fish	Outside, 8; inside covering, 3.	16	3-13	Hard	do	50	
40	do	do	C. R. Heath	2½	20	3-17	do	Domestic, stock.	50	
41	Haddam		E. P. Arnold	9	8	0	do	Domestic	150	Never dry.
42	do		B. W. Kelsey		14	0	Soft	do		
43	do		E. E. Lewis	3	15	6	Hard	do		
44	Hebron	Gilead	Frederick Prentice	3	20	10-19	Soft	do		Rises in springs and lowers gradually till winter.
45	do	Hebron	F. W. Little	4	35	20		do		Rock at bottom.
46	do	Turnerville	Ben Jones	4	25	10; var.	Soft	do		Water from clay.
47	do	do	R. D. Stephens		18		do	do		
48	do	do	Edw. T. Smith	4	28	15-20	do	do		
49	do	do	Joel Jones	5	15	12	do	do		Rock at 14 feet.
50	Huntington	Shelton	A. E. Hewitt		67½	60	do	do		Water from hardpan.
51	do	do	O. J. Beard	2½	25	0-19	Hard	do		Do.
52	Lebanon		D. Blanchard	3	14	9-14	Soft			Rock at bottom; dry in summer.
53	do	Lebanon	C. H. Loomis	3	20	12	do	Domestic		
54	do	do	J. H. King	2½	19	5	Hard	do		
*55	do	do	R. E. Turner	6	28	3	Soft	do	200	
56	Litchfield	Prospect	H. S. Clark	3	17	10+	Hard	do	35	Water comes from hardpan.
57	do	do	H. N. Payne		22	8	do	do		
58	do	do	L. G. Clark	6	24	6	do	do		Do.
59	Madison		M. T. Bushnell	3	23	Var.	Soft	do		
60	do		J. Q. Buell	3	19	16	do	do		
61	do		P. P. Coe		27	5	do	do		
62	do		C. W. Scranton	3	15	3-11	Hard	Domestic, stock, irrigation.	50	Cased by tiling.
*63	do	East River	S. H. Chittenden	3	25	12-22	do	Domestic		
64	Milford		D. L. Clark	3	21	8-13	do	do	63	
65	do		E. L. Ford	3	27		Medium	do	50	
66	Montville		D. A. Botham	3½	30	10-20	Soft	do		
67	New Haven	New Haven	E. C. Hildebrand	3	14	10	do	do		
68	Newtown		L. C. Morris	3	38	10+	Hard	do	200	
69	do		Chas. Morris	3	19	4-19	do	do		Dry in summer; temperature, 46° F.
70	North Canaan	East Canaan	G. O. Dunning	2½	8	3	Medium	do	15	
71	North Branford		A. H. Hill	(b)	75	20	do	Stock	150	
72	North Stonington	Pendleton Hill	H. V. Baker	5	30	2-15	Soft	Domestic	50	Water comes from clay.
73	do	North Stonington	O. Chapman		17	5-15	do	do	43	
74	Norwalk	Silver Mine	C. N. Adams	6	14	6	Hard	Greenhouse		Yields 1,500 gallons daily.
75	Old Mystic	Old Mystic	S. H. Babcock	(b)	36			Domestic		
76	Plymouth	Pequabuck	Scott & Co.	3	25	12	Hard	Drinking		From clay; temperature, 50° F.
77	Redding	Redding Ridge	D. S. Sanford	3	20	8	do	Domestic		
78	do	do	J. B. Cornwall	4	16	8	Soft	do		From clay; water is siphoned for use.
79	Sharon	Sharon	Mrs. C. Schwab	(b)	150	40	Hard	Domestic, farm.	450	
80	do	do	Mrs. E. C. Schwab	(b)	152	48	do	do	456	
81	Stratford		C. H. Welles	3	32	7-20	do	Domestic		
82	Watertown	Oakville	W. H. Smith	6	14	7	do	do	75	
83	Washington	Washington Depot	E. C. Whitehead	3	18	4-10	do			

[a] Additional details concerning wells marked with an * are given on p. 151.

[b] Drilled; 6 inches in diameter.

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Records of wells in till in Connecticut.[a]

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Diameter.	Depth.	Depth to water level.	Quality.	Use.	Cost.	Remarks.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*				
*1	Andover		E. D. White	7½	17	1-4		Domestic	$100	
2	do		W. Kingsbury		24	Var.	Hard	do		
3	do	Andover	—— Town	3	22	12	do	General	150	
*4	Ashford	North Ashford	George A. Keach	8	7	2	Soft	Domestic		
*5	Barkhamsted	Barkhamsted	W. F. Beach	3	16	Var.	do	Stock		
*6	Bethlehem		G. C. Stone	5	12	6+	do			
7	do		A. T. Minor	6	23		do			
8	do		F. H. Thompson	8	27	3-20	do	Domestic, stock	50	
9	Bolton		C. F. Summer		23	6+	Hard		35	
*10	do		M. W. Sperry	3½	27	10+	do	Domestic		
11	do	Bolton Center	C. M. Perry	6	18	5-10	do	do	45	
12	Canaan	Falls Village	Henry Brinton	4	16	2-8	do	do		
13	do	do	Walter Kellogg	Top, 4; bottom, 8.	22	5-16	do	do		
14	do	do	H. B. Smith	3½	18	14	do			
15	do		J. N. Van Deusen	3	16	4-10	do	Domestic	25	
16	Canton	Collinsville	S. Gibson	3	24	14		do		
17	do	do	Miss E. White	2	30		Hard	do		
18	Chaplin		C. E. Chester	3½	35	30	Soft	do		
19	Eastford	Phœnixville	M. F. Latham		30		do	do		
20	Franklin	North Franklin	A. R. Race	3½	11	7	do	do		
*21	do	do	do	10	14		do	do	53	
22	Chatham	East Hampton	H. G. Clark	4	8	5	do	do	25	
23	do	do	H. D. Chapman	3	15	Var.	do	do	75	
24	do	do	L. S. Carpenter	4	15	5	do	do	25	
25	do	do	T. S. Brown	6	22	10-16	Hard	do	40	
26	do	do	S. D. Barton	3	16	5-12	Medium	do	35	
*27	do	do	L. H. Goff	3	25	6-24	do	do	30	
28	Columbia		E. D. Dewey	Top, 2½; bottom, 4.	35	5+	do	do		
*29	do		S. D. West	4	13	3-8	Hard, iron	Domestic, stock		
30	do		H. C. Isham	3	27	12	Hard		30	
31	Eastford	Phœnixville	G. R. Dickey	3	20	4-16	do			Stoned down 3 feet.
32	Fairfield		B. F. Pease	4	12	5	Soft	Domestic		150 gallons a day; easily lowered.
*33	Goshen	West Goshen	W. H. Wadhams	2½	18	2-14	Hard	do		
34	do	do	H. G. Wright	4	15	Var.	Soft	do		
35	do		E. Carlisle	3	15		do	do		
36	do		Lyman Hall	10	20	3-13	Hard	do	75	Stoned throughout.
37	Greenwich		L. M. Close	5	18	10	do	Stock		Water comes from clay.
38	do	Stanwich	S. R. Close	4	24	Var.	Soft	Domestic		Temperature 54° F.

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*39	Groton	Mystic	S. G. Fish	Outside, 8; inside covering, 3.	16	3-13	Hard	do	50	
40	do	do	C. R. Heath	2½	20	3-17	do	Domestic, stock	50	
41	Haddam		E. P. Arnold	9	8	0	do	Domestic	150	Never dry.
42	do		B. W. Kelsey		14	0	Soft	do		
43	do		E. E. Lewis	3	15	6	Hard	do		
44	Hebron	Gilead	Frederick Prentice	3	20	10-19	Soft	do		Rises in springs and lowers gradually till winter.
45	do	Hebron	F. W. Little	4	35	20		do		Rock at bottom.
46	do	Turnerville	Ben Jones	4	25	10; var.	Soft	do		Water from clay.
47	do	do	R. D. Stephens		18		do	do		
48	do	do	Edw. T. Smith	4	28	15-20	do	do		
49	do	do	Joel Jones	5	15	12	do	do		Rock at 14 feet.
50	Huntington	Shelton	A. E. Hewitt		67½	60	do	do		Water from hardpan.
51	do	do	O. J. Beard	2½	25	0-19	Hard	do		Do.
52	Lebanon		D. Blanchard	3	14	9-14	Soft			Rock at bottom; dry in summer.
53	do	Lebanon	C. H. Loomis	3	20	12	do	Domestic		
54	do	do	J. H. King	2½	19	5	Hard	do		
*55	do	do	R. E. Turner	6	28	3	Soft	do	200	
56	Litchfield	Prospect	H. S. Clark	3	17	10+	Hard	do	35	Water comes from hardpan.
57	do	do	H. N. Payne		22	8	do	do		
58	do	do	L. G. Clark	6	24	6	do	do		Do.
59	Madison		M. T. Bushnell	3	23	Var.	Soft	do		
60	do		J. Q. Buell	3	19	16	do	do		
61	do		P. P. Coe		27	5	do	do		
62	do		C. W. Scranton	3	15	3-11	Hard	Domestic, stock, irrigation.	50	Cased by tiling.
*63	do	East River	S. H. Chittenden	3	25	12-22	do	Domestic		
64	Milford		D. L. Clark	3	21	8-13	do	do	63	
65	do		E. L. Ford	3	27		Medium	do	50	
66	Montville		D. A. Botham	3½	30	10-20	Soft	do		
67	New Haven	New Haven	E. C. Hildebrand	3	14	10	do	do		
68	Newtown		L. C. Morris	3	38	10+	Hard	do	200	
69	do		Chas. Morris	3	19	4-19	do	do		Dry in summer; temperature, 46° F.
70	North Canaan	East Canaan	G. O. Dunning	2½	8	3	Medium	do	15	
71	North Branford		A. H. Hill	(b)	75	20	do	Stock	150	
72	North Stonington	Pendleton Hill	H. V. Baker	5	30	2-15	Soft	Domestic	50	Water comes from clay.
73	do	North Stonington	O. Chapman		17	5-15	do	do	43	
74	Norwalk	Silver Mine	C. N. Adams	6	14	6	Hard	Greenhouse		Yields 1,500 gallons daily.
75	Old Mystic	Old Mystic	S. H. Babcock	(b)	36			Domestic		
76	Plymouth	Pequabuck	Scott & Co	3	25	12	Hard	Drinking		From clay; temperature, 50° F.
77	Redding	Redding Ridge	D. S. Sanford	3	20	8	do	Domestic		
78	do	do	J. B. Cornwall	4	16	8	Soft	do		From clay; water is siphoned for use.
79	Sharon	Sharon	Mrs. C. Schwab	(b)	150	40	Hard	Domestic, farm	450	
80	do	do	Mrs. E. C. Schwab	(b)	152	48	do	do	456	
81	Stratford		C. H. Welles	3	32	7-20	do	Domestic		
82	Watertown	Oakville	W. H. Smith	6	14	7	do	do	75	
83	Washington	Washington Depot	E. C. Whitehead	3	18	4-10	do			

[a] Additional details concerning wells marked with an * are given on p. 151.

[b] Drilled; 6 inches in diameter.

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Records of wells in till in Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Diameter.	Depth.	Depth to water level.	Quality.	Use.	Cost.	Remarks.
				Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*				
84	Washington	Washington Depot	R. W. Squires		22	21	Hard	Domestic		
85	Westbrook	Westbrook	A. L. Burdick	3	18	7	do	do		
86	Wilton	Wilton	E. Benedict	3	20	Var.	do	do		
87	do	do	H. Chichester	4	25	7; var.	Soft	do		
88	do	do	S. Comstock	3	20	10	do	do		
89	do	do	J. Gilbert	3	21	4-19	Hard	do		
90	do	do	C. W. Horton	10	17	6-8	Soft	do		
91	do	do	W. T. Jelliffe	3½	20	14	Hard	do		
92	do	do	B. N. McQueen	3	32	10-20	Hard, iron	do		
93	do	do	J. F. Knapp	6	12	3	Soft	Stock	$96	Stoned.
94	Woodbridge		Mrs. F. P. Gilbert	3	40		Hard	Domestic		Rock at bottom.
95	do		F. I. Baldwin	4	30	2	do	Domestic, stock		Water comes from hardpan.
96	Woodbury	Hotchkissville	N. H. Bloss	4	12	6; var.	Soft	Domestic		Main supply at 25 feet.

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NOTES.

1. Passes through 3 feet of moist clay loam above 14 feet of hardpan. This is one of six dug wells varying from 16 to 28 feet in depth, and is stoned, jug shape.

4. An excavated spring, the water being transported by a pipe with a 50-foot fall.

5. Passed through hardpan for the entire depth. The water level varies greatly, the well being nearly dry in some seasons. A stream the size of a lead pencil was struck 6 feet from the top and another stream was encountered below a flat rock.

6. In hardpan, with loam above. Water flows into the well from the northwest.

10. Supply said to be practically unlimited and lowered with difficulty. Well is in sandy clay underlain by hardpan.

21. Put down in 1900 through 14 feet of hardpan and obtained a strong flow from quicksand.

27. Passed through 3 feet of soil and 22 feet of "clay hardpan" containing "stones as large as a water pail." No streams of water were encountered, the water oozing from the hardpan in drops.

29. Blasted into rock 5 feet and occasionally becomes dry; 35 feet away is an unfailing well sunk 7 feet in till and containing soft water.

33. Never failing, but varies in amount of water with seasonal changes. Passes through 3 feet of loam and 15 feet of hardpan.

39. Passed through 2 feet of topsoil, 8 feet of clay subsoil or hardpan, and 6 feet of sand and gravel. Water came in from several small veins (probably from sand and gravel). Water level lowers in dry seasons, but ordinarily rises within 8 feet of surface.

43. Flows in wet seasons and occasionally runs dry at the same time as an adjacent stream. The well is located on a sandy knoll, and may be in stratified drift.

55. First 5 feet were soil and clay subsoil; first water struck at 9 feet, yielding 40 barrels a day. Remaining 19 feet through hardpan containing and underlain by coarse gravel at the bottom, from which issued a large stream of water rising within 3 feet of the surface. According to Rev. R. E. Turner, local artesian conditions prevail.

63. Struck water at 13 feet below the surface, where rocks occurred in sand and water came in as a strong flow. Has never been dry.

RECORDS OF WELLS IN STRATIFIED DRIFT.

The available records of wells in stratified drift are summarized in the following table:

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Records of wells in stratified drift in Connecticut.[a]

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Type.	Topographic position.	Diameter.	Depth.	Depth to principal source.	Depth to water level.	Yield per minute.	Quality.	Cost.	Use.	Material yielding water.	Remarks.
						In.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*					
1	Andover	Andover	Thos. Sullivan	Drilled	Valley	5	63	50	45		Soft	$300	Domestic	Gravel	Supply constant.
2	Ansonia	Ansonia	Y. M. C. A	Dug		30	6		1	24	do		House, boilers, plunge.		
3	do	do	H. J. Smith	do	Valley	30	84		2		do	250	Domestic		Water rises in well with rise of river.
4	Avon	Avon	J. P. Neville	Driven		2	26		14	Good.	do		do		
5	Beacon Falls		C. H. Hoffman	Dug	Stream bed.	36	10	8	5	[b] 500	Hard	25	do	Gravel	Varies with season.
6	Berlin	Berlin	E. J. Clark	do		36	16	11	11	Large.	do		do		
7	do	do	C. W. Hollister	do		36	35	4			do		do		
8	Branford	Branford	Richard Bradley	do	Hill		44	39–44		Good.	do	250	Domestic, stock.	Gravel, quicksand.	
*9	do	do	J. W. Nichols	do	Slope	36	17	15		Good.	do	100	Domestic, lawn.	Gravel	
10	Brooklyn	Wauregan	Church of the Sacred Heart.	Driven	do	6	48	48	12	Good.	Soft	150	Domestic, boiler.	do	
11	Canaan	South Canaan	Mrs. J. B. Copon.	Dug			17	17	2	Good.	Hard		Domestic	Quicksand.	Water comes in just above rock.
12	do	Falls Village	R. Pendleton	do		30	12		Varies.		Soft	25	do	Gravel	
13	Coventry	South Coventry.	Mrs. M. Colburn.	Drilled	Slope	6	45	35	24	Small.	do	132	do	Clay	Water becomes soily when heavily pumped.
14	Cromwell	Cromwell	E. S. Coe	Dug	Hill		40	30			Medium.		do		
15	do	do	F. K. Hallock	Driven	Slope	6	84		24		Hard		do	Sand	
16	Derby	Derby	Derby and Ansonia Brewing Co.	Drilled	Ridge	6	155	28		50		800	Brewing	Gravel	Well penetrates rock, but water comes from gravel.
17	Eastford	Phoenixville	L. N. Snow	Dug	do	30	30				Hard		Domestic	do	
18	do	do	M. L. Latham	do		48	28		22		Soft	60	do		
19	East Haddam	East Haddam	F. L. Ray	do	Hill	36	22				do		do	Clay	Temperature 50° in summer, 48° in winter.
*20	East Hartford		F. A. King	Driven	Plain	1¼	20	20		8	Medium.		Domestic, stock.	Sand	Temperature 50°.
*21	East Lyme	Crescent Beach	A. P. Carroll	do	Plain near coast.	2	16		2	[c] 15		[d] 3	Cottages	Gravel	Water enters at contact with rock.
22	Fairfield	Greenfield Hill	S. J. Gorman	Dug	Hill	36	48		0 in winter.	[e] 2,500	Medium.		General	do	Pumping lowers.

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23	.....do.....	.....	G. H. Bradley...	..do.....	.....	40	27	18	8	.....	Soft.....	.....	Domestic..	.....	
24	Farmington...	Farmington...	Wm. Potts.....	Drilled...	.....	.....	78	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Clay, gravel.	Well was blocked by clay.
25	Glastonbury...	Buckingham..	O. E. Bailey.....	Dug.....	.....	48	24	24	.....	.....	Soft.....	.....	Domestic..	.....	Dry in dry weather.
26	.....do.....	.....do.....	E. C. Weir.....	...do.....	Hill.....	36	16	8	Varies.	1½	...do.....	.....	...do.....	Gravel..	Water obtained by siphon.
27	Griswold.....	Glasgo.....	Glasgo Yarn Mills.	Drilled...	...do.....	6	93	.....	26	8	...do.....	276	.....	...do.....	
28	Guilford.....	Guilford.....	C. Griswold.....	Driven...	.....	2	65	.....	.....	Good.	Hard.....	.....	.....	...do.....	
29	Haddam.....	Haddam.....	G. Parmelee.....	Dug.....	.....	40	50	46	46	Good.	Soft.....	200	Domestic..	Sand....	
30	.....do.....	.....	County Orphans Home.	...do.....	.....	.....	21	.....	.....	.....	...do.....	200	...do.....	Gravel..	
31	Hamden.....	Mount Carmel.	A. E. Woodruff.	Drilled...	.....	6	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	General....	...do.....	
32	.....do.....	.....do.....	Mount Carmel Bolt Co.	Dug.....	Slope.....	30	35	.....	.....	.....	Medium.	.....	Boiler, drinking.	.....	Temperature 51°.
33	Killingly.....	Danielsonville.	Jas. M. Paine....	Drilled...	...do.....	6	142	118	62	7	Soft.....	417	Tenements, stores.	Sand....	Water from sand at top of rock. Pumping lowers to 50 feet.
34	.....do.....	Attawaugan...	Attawaugan Co..	Driven...	Plain.....	6	112	80	25	.....	Hard....	375	Domestic..	Sand, gravel.	
35	Ledyard.....	Gales Ferry...	J. C. Hazler.....	Drilled...	.....	6	33	.....	15	1	Soft.....	.....	.....	.....	Easily lowered.
36	Mansfield.....	Mansfield Depot.	A. K. Brown....	...do.....	Valley....	6	75	65	40	Small.	Soft, iron	300	Domestic..	Sand....	
37	Meriden.....	Meriden.....	C. Rogers & Bros.	...do.....	.....	1½	47	.....	.....	.....	Hard....	.....	General, except for boilers.	Gravel..	
38	Milford.....	Woodmont....	A. G. Chapin....	Driven...	Slope.....	6	35	.....	.....	Good.	Soft.....	175	Domestic..	...do....	
39	.....do.....	Milford.....	B. B. B. Gregory.	Drilled...	.....	6	35	29	28	.....	Hard....	.....	...do.....	Sand, gravel.	
40	.....do.....	.....do.....	Mrs. A. M. Coupland.	...do.....	Plain.....	6	92	25, 60	.....	.....	Medium.	.....	...do.....	Gravel..	
41	Montville.....	Uncasville.....	J. B. Lathrop...	...do.....	Valley....	6	70	.....	55	Large.	Soft.....	210	Domestic..	...do....	Pumping does not lower.
42	.....do.....	.....do.....	Chas. Ramage...	...do.....	...do.....	6	40	39	20	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	
43	.....do.....	.....do.....	M. E. Fox.....	...do.....	Slope.....	6	32	28	24	.....	Hard....	.....	Domestic..	Sand....	9 feet of water ordinarily; 3 feet in dry times.
44	.....do.....	.....do.....	J. F. Schofield..	...do.....	Plain.....	6	78	51	.....	Good.	Soft.....	234	Domestic, lawns.	Sand, gravel.	Temperature 48°.
45	New Haven...	New Haven...	F. B. Shuster Co.	Driven...	.....	2	58	.....	20	.....	Hard....	.....	Washing..	Gravel..	See analysis, p. 178.
46	.....do.....	.....do.....	.....do.....	...do.....	.....	2	72	.....	20	.....	...do....	.....	...do.....	...do....	
*47	.....do.....	.....do.....	Dining hall, Yale University.	Driven, 9 wells.	Flat.....	1, 2	±27	25–27	21	.....	...do....	.....	Condensing ammonia.	Sand....	Temperature 48°.
48	.....do.....	.....do.....	Hygienic Ice Co..	Driven, 40 wells.	Plain.....	2	35–70	.....	f 20–25	160	...do....	.....	Cooling....	...do....	In different parts of city; temperature 52½°.
*49	.....do.....	.....do.....	Yale University gymnasium.	Driven, 34 wells.	...do.....	1½	27	20	.....	150	...do....	600	Swimming pool.	...do....	Temperature 52°.
*50	.....do.....	.....do.....	Sperry & Barnes.	Driven, 40 wells.	...do.....	2	42	.....	.....	Large.	.....	.....	General...	Gravel..	Temperature 53°. See analysis, p. 178.

[a] Additional details concerning wells marked with an asterisk are given on p. 156. [b] Daily. [c] 10,000 gallons daily. [d] Per foot. [e] Weekly. [f] Seasonal variation.

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Records of wells in stratified drift in Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner.	Type.	Topographic position.	Diameter.	Depth.	Depth to principal source.	Depth to water level.	Yield per minute.	Quality.	Cost.	Use.	Material yielding water.	Remarks.
						In.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*					
51	New Milford	Boardman	A. G. Barnes	Driven	Valley	2	70		12	Large.			Domestic, stock.	General	From gravel under sand.
52	do	do	do	do	do	2	80		12	Large.			do	do	
53	Newton	Newton	C. L. Mitchell	Dug	Plain	36	22		10–20		Soft, iron		Domestic	do	
54	North Canaan		J. D. Clemens	Driven		1¼	20		10		Hard	[a] $3	do	Sand, gravel.	
55	North Haven	Hamden	Jas. H. Webb	Drilled	Plain	8	143		40		do		Washing, stock.	Gravel	Rock below 40 feet; temperature 48°.
56	Norwalk	Norwalk	R. & G. Corset Co	Dug	Valley	36	20		8		do			do	See analysis, p. 178.
57	do		Roton Point Improvement Co.	do		144	10						Hotel	do	
58	Norwich	Norwichtown	Miss M. A. Cryer	Drilled	Plain	6	50				Hard, iron.	200	Domestic		Clay above gravel.
59	Old Mystic	Old Mystic	A. A. Haley	do	Valley	6	31		7	20	Soft			Coarse gravel.	
60	Old Saybrook	Saybrook Point.	C. E. Jackson	Dug	Plain	36	17		6	Large.	Hard	25	Domestic	Sandy soil.	
61	do	do	J. T. Beckwith	do	Elevation		25		20		Medium.	50	Domestic, hotel.	Gravel	
62	do	do	W. G. Bulkeley	do		30	20		12				Domestic		
63	Plainfield	Moosup	Floyd Cranska	Drilled	Valley	6	100		10	30	Hard		do	do	Rock at 60 feet.
*64	do	Central Village	F. A. Carey	do	Hill	6	55		25	3	Soft, iron		do	Clay, gravel.	
65	Pomfret	Pomfret	R. J. Sabin	Dug	Slope	72	12	12	Var.		Iron	25	Stock	Gravel	
*66	Ridgefield	Ridgefield	Ridgefield Water Supply Co.	Drilled, 5 wells.	Plain	6	60		50	½	Soft		Town supply.	do	
67	Seymour	Seymour	Joseph Riegal	Drilled	do	6	110	83	23		do	440	Hotel, tenements.	do	Pumping does not lower.
68	Sprague	Baltic	Baltic Mills Co.	do	Slope	6	101	60	40	Good.	Hard	200	Domestic	do	
69	Stafford	Stafford Springs.	A. Howard	Driven	Island		35	35		Good.				do	
*70	Union		J. M. Leach	do	do	1½	33			Large.	Medium.	25	Domestic	do	
*71	do	Mashapaug	J. H. Howard	do		2	38		20		Soft, iron		do	do	
72	do	do	do			2	47		20		do		do	do	Temperature 52–60°.
*73	do	do	G. W. Crawford	Dug		36	15		9	Good.	Soft		do		Well 8 feet away with hard water.
74	Washington	New Preston	N. B. Mead	Drilled		6	110		30	Small.	Milky		do	Sand, gravel.	Pumps dry.
75	Waterbury	Hopeville	Mrs. F. B. Wood	Dug and drilled.			53	43	42		Hard		do	Gravel	

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*76	.....do.....	Waterbury....	C. Tracy.....	Drilled...	Hill.....	6	200	.....	40	60	Soft.....	1,200	...do.....	...do.....	Pumping lowers 10 feet.
77	Westbrook....	Westbrook....	H. R. Parker....	Driven...	Plain.....	1½	20	.....	12	Large.	.....	.....	...do.....	Gravel, sand.	
78	West Hartford.	Elmwood.....	Mrs. E. W. Talcott.	Drilled...	.....	6	51	.....	20	1½	Hard....	.....	...do.....	Gravel..	Pumping lowers 2 feet.
79	Westport.....	Westport.....	Westport Water Co.	Dug.....	.....	180	15	.....	.....	(b)	...do.....	.....	Town supply.	.....	
80	Willington....	South Willington.	A. Korper.....	...do.....	.....	48	28	26	21	.....	...do.....	100	Domestic..	.....	
*81	Woodbury....	Woodbury....	M. A. Hurd.....	...do.....	Valley....	36	20	.....	13	.....	Soft.....	.....	...do.....	.....	Well bottom at river level.
*82	.....do.....	.....do.....	L. J. Allen.....	...do.....	...do.....	24	31	.....	.....	.....	Hard....	.....	...do.....	.....	

a Per foot.

b 150,000 gallons daily.

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NOTES.

9. Dug in a springy spot, water being struck almost immediately, with a heavy flow at the bottom. Level varies somewhat with seasonal changes, but even in dry seasons is high.

20. Log shows coarse sand containing much water, beneath which is fine sand underlain by 6 inches of gravel, and clay at the bottom.

21. First 12 feet through gravel, which overlies 50 feet of quicksand that plugged the pipe and prevented inflow. The water horizon is in gravel below the quicksand.

47. Used for condensing ammonia in refrigerator. At 26 or 27 feet below surface is quicksand and below this clay.

49. Located near together and used to supply water for baths and swimming pool.

50. Driven in at sea level; water rises 10 inches in advance of the tide. The pipes, 40 in number, pass through 7 feet of tide water, 25 feet of soft blue mud, 6 feet of hard blue clay, 3 feet of material resembling hardpan, and 2 feet of mixed coarse and fine gravel, which yields the water. A pipe has been sunk 300 feet from the surface, passing through quicksand all the way below the gravel to bed rock.

64. Sunk through 5 feet of black and yellow loam and 16 feet of dark-colored hardpan with cobblestones, reaching rock here at 25 feet below the surface. One-half mile farther north is a second well, 15 feet deep, which passes through soft loam and quicksand and yields an abundance of soft water. Immediately to the east are wells, 10 to 12 feet deep, in gravelly soil. Toward the south the wells are in clay and hardpan.

66. One of a gang of five driven wells (two 6-inch and three 3-inch) supplying the town of Ridgefield. Another 6-inch well is 75 feet deep but of small yield, probably because it passes nearly through the water-bearing gravel.

70. Driven wells on gravel island in small lake. Temperature of water said to be 48° to 52° from February 15 to July, and from July to February will rise to 58° to 62°.

71. Said to have been drilled through hardpan, the water coming in several small veins.

73. Passes through thin layers of loam and gravel and at 12 feet into "closely packed broken rock."

76. Drilled 19 feet into rock, but the supply of water comes at the contact of the rock and the surface material.

81, 82. Said to have passed through sand, gravel, and clay, deriving their water from clay. A complete record of a well in the same vicinity gives 15 feet solid clay; 15 feet hardpan containing pebbles one-half inch to 3 inches in diameter; 41 feet gravelly dark soil; 29 feet bowlder material; 10 feet decomposed dry rock.

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CHAPTER VII.

WATER SUPPLY OF TYPICAL AREAS.

WARREN—A HIGHLAND TOWN.

Warren is a typical highland town, with a population of 432, devoted to agriculture and allied interests. It has an average elevation of about 1,000 feet and an annual rainfall of about 50 inches. Mica schist (Berkshire) forms the bed rock in the western and southeastern parts of the town; gray banded gneiss (Becket) occurs at Cornwall Center; and granite occupies the northeast corner of the town on both sides of the west branch of the Shepaug. Glacial till forms a mantle over most of the rock surface and constitutes the principal water-bearing formation.

There are very few places in the town where abundant water is not found at a depth of less than 40 feet, and springs are numerous at low and high levels. In general, the farmers can choose between digging a shallow well and bringing water from a spring, as the cost of digging a 30-foot well is estimated to be the same as installing a pipe line 80 rods long. Mineral springs are not found in the town, and only one windmill is reported. The springs furnish soft water, the wells hard.

The following detailed information regarding the water supply of Warren has been furnished by Myron A. Munson. The numbers refer to locations on the accompanying map (fig. 27).

1. Spring sunk 4 feet, near the house; go for the water.
2. Water for house and barn brought from spring 50 or 60 rods east; soft, and excellent; running since 1852. Also well 14½ feet deep, water 7 feet; poor, apparently surface water mainly.
3. Water obtained from spring.
4. Well 16¾ feet deep; water 5 feet; good.
5. Well 21 feet deep; water 8½ feet; excellent, "soft for a well, makes good suds."
8. Well 15½ feet deep; water 7 feet; rather hard; use rain water also.
9. Well 19 feet deep; water very hard. There are two excellent springs at a distance of 20 and 30 rods.
10. Conditions not favorable for wells.
13. Three wells on the place. The one now in use is less than 20 feet deep. Water was formerly soft; coal ashes were deposited in some near-by depression, since which the quality of the water has deteriorated. The well is unfailing, and the supply so copious that it is difficult to exhaust the well sufficiently to prepare it for cleaning. "It would supply water for a hundred cattle." There are two springs on the place with water having a temperature of 48°.

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14. Well about 12 feet deep; water is soft.

17. Water conducted from a spring.

18. Water brought from a spring on a lower level by means of a ram.

19. Water brought to house from spring, which is about 25 feet above the doorstep and 15 rods distant; 2 feet deep; fails in dry season. A second spring, supplying water to barn, boils up through sand and never fails; water is conducted to south barn. A third spring, of constant flow, supplies milk house and horse trough. A

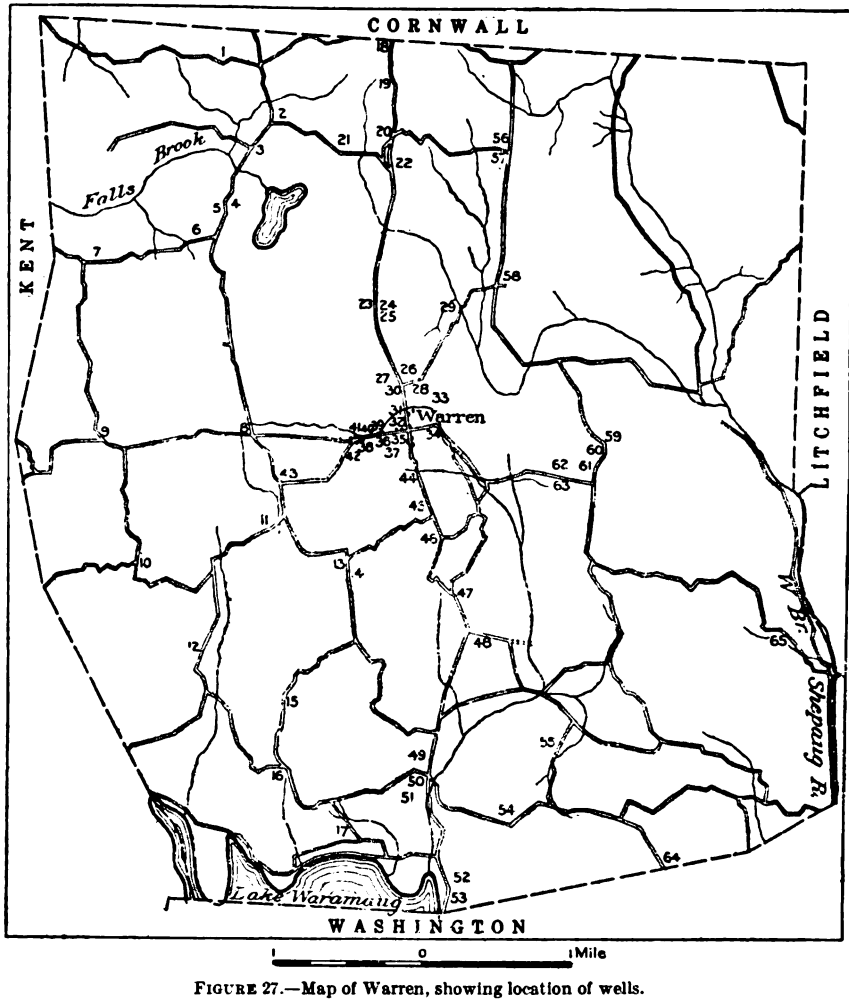

FIGURE 27.—Map of Warren, showing location of wells.

fourth spring, unfailing, is used only as pasture supply. Across the swampy meadow to the west is another good spring.

20. Rock ledge exposed; water formerly conducted from a spring. Conditions at the house are unfavorable for wells.

21. Well 18 feet deep; water 5½ feet; not very hard; two springs across the road supply milk houses.

22. Well 12 feet deep; water very hard. Spring at milk house across the road is declared to be "soft and sweet."

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23. Well 19½ feet deep; water hard; rain water also used. Spring at milk house consists of three streams, which gush up from sand.

24. Obtains water from a spring in the field.

25. Supply similar to No. 24.

26. Has a "laundry spring" within 3 or 4 rods of the house; a better one 5 or 6 rods away; soft, and seldom failing.

27. Well 12 feet deep; water hard; rain water also used.

28. A good spring of soft water 5 or 6 rods distant from the house, "flowing as fast as can dip;" another colder spring is 4 rods farther away.

29. Well 38 feet deep; water 22½ feet; hard, and unfailing. At 50 rods down the hill to the northeast is an ice pond into which five springs flow. An unsuccessful attempt was made to bring an unfailing spring from a distance of a quarter of a mile. A windmill was installed at the well a few years ago but was later discarded.

30. Well 18 feet deep; water 9½ feet.

31. Well 16 feet deep; water 6¾ feet. Soft water is brought from a spring 30 rods distant.

32. Brings water in pails from an excellent spring of soft water at a distance of 8 or 10 rods.

33. This family obtains water from a good spring 30 rods distant.

35. Water rather hard.

36. Well 17¾ feet deep; water very hard, also contaminated. A new well about 12 feet deep at a distance of 15 rods obtained good water.

37. Well good; unfailing in driest times.

39. Well 13½ feet deep; water hard, yet suitable for washing.

41. Well 16½ feet deep; water said to be good.

42. Well 23¼ feet deep; water a little hard. Used for all purposes, though a little way east and west of the house are two soft springs. Is the "best in town." Never known to fail when drought was most severe.

43. Well 17 feet deep; water 7¼ feet; a little hard; rain water (cistern) also used. Excellent spring 70 rods to the northeast in corner of the orchard; another 150 rods to the southeast. Horse barn supplied from a well 10 feet deep, containing 6¼ feet of water. "The springs about here are soft."

44. Water carried from a spring near at hand, but at a lower level.

45. Well 15½ feet deep; water 6 feet; good. A spring in a swamp near at hand has been used.

46. Well 7 or 8 rods west of house, 15½ feet deep; contains 7½ feet of poor water. Water has been carried from the swamp named above (No. 45) into the cellar of this house, but the method worked poorly, and frequent repairing was necessary.

47. Water conducted from a spring at a considerable distance.

49. Water from spring at a distance of 40 rods.

50. Well 5 feet deep; water hard; unfailing.

51. Water brought from a spring sunk to produce a well of 12 feet depth; soft, good, and unfailing; has been used for fifty years.

52, 53. Two of six houses supplied from a spring on the hills to the east.

54. Unfavorable location for wells. Well measures 36½ feet, the "deepest in the town;" water 13 feet, but is "likely to become scant in the summer."

56. Well 20½ feet deep; water has an iron taste. A well 13¼ feet deep across the road in a corner of the barnyard is said to contain good water.

57. Well a few yards west of the house 16⅓ feet deep; water very hard. A number of good springs on lower ground.

58. Well 13½ feet deep spoiled by drainage from cesspool. There are six good springs, sweet and soft, on the place at no great distance, four of the six never failing. The house is supplied by two springs united, a quarter of a mile distant. A ram is employed.

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59. Well 17 feet deep; water 12¼ feet; "soft as a spring;" sometimes fails.

61. Well 12 feet deep; water 6 feet; unfailing; soft, good for washing. Said on the spot to be the "best in town."

62. Well 10 feet deep; water 5¾ feet, hard. Water is brought from a spring to this house and to the one across the road.

65. Spring of cold water issuing from a beautiful grotto; water is of uniform temperature throughout the year.

NORTH HAVEN—A LOWLAND TOWN.

The conditions surrounding the occurrence and recovery of ground water in the central lowland are illustrated in the town of North Haven, a portion of which is shown on the accompanying map (fig. 28). The area has an elevation of less than 100 feet and is underlain by sandstone, on top of which rest clays, sands, gravels, and till of glacial origin. Sand with large water capacity is the predominating surface formation. In the following descriptions the numbers refer to locations on the map:

1. Well 30 feet deep; contains about 4 feet of water. In sand and gravel the entire distance.

2. Well 30 feet deep; has 6 feet of water. In sand and gravel.

3. Well 30 feet deep, in sand and gravel; has 4 feet of water, "not very good."

4. A drilled well, 115 feet deep, all of the distance in sand and gravel.

5. Well 20 feet deep; has 4 feet of water. In sand and gravel.

6. One well 30 feet deep, with 5 feet of water; one 20 feet deep, with 6 feet of water; both in sand and gravel. There is also an excellent spring at this place, having a fall of 11 feet, which is sufficient to force water to all parts of the house. The ground water in the spring and in the shallow well appears to come from the northwest; that in the other well comes from the northeast.

7. Passes through sand, reaching rock at a depth of 20 feet. The water comes from just above the rock. The well is practically inexhaustible, three families using it all the time.

8. A large supply of good water from a well sunk 17 feet into sand. Has 7 feet of water.

9. Drilled in sandstone to a depth of 153 feet. Most of the water was reached at the 50-foot level.

10. One well is 16 feet deep in red sandstone and near at hand is another well or spring 9 feet deep in which the water is seen to bubble up through the sand at the bottom. One hundred barrels of water have been pumped from this spring at one time without exhausting the supply. Both wells are very close to Quinnipiac River.

11. Drilled well 45 feet deep; in rock for almost the entire distance. Gives an abundant supply of good water.

12. Drilled in red sandstone to a depth of 126 feet, most of the water being reached at a depth of about 45 feet; yields a good supply of water. A spring also occurs in the back yard.

13. Well 25 feet deep; walled with stone. After every freshet the sand pours in at the crevices so that it needs cleaning frequently. The water is excellent and abundant.

14. Well 15 feet deep; contains 5 feet of water. It does not fail, and the water is soft and good.

15. Well 16 feet deep; holds 8 feet of water. The water is very good, but fails in dry seasons. Spring 300 yards to the northeast gives an abundance of water for house use and is high enough to send water into all the rooms of the second story by gravity. There is also a spring at the barn.

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16. Constant spring of good water.

17. Said to be about 20 feet deep.

18. Well 17 feet deep. The first few feet are in sand and the remainder in red sandstone, with a sharp easterly dip. The water occurs in the rock and varies but little with the seasons.

19. Well 22 feet deep; has about 4 feet of soft water.

20. Well 30 feet deep, the last 18 feet in red sandstone. The water found in the rock is soft and plentiful.

21. Well 30 feet deep, in sand and gravel. About 5 feet of soft water stands constantly in the well.

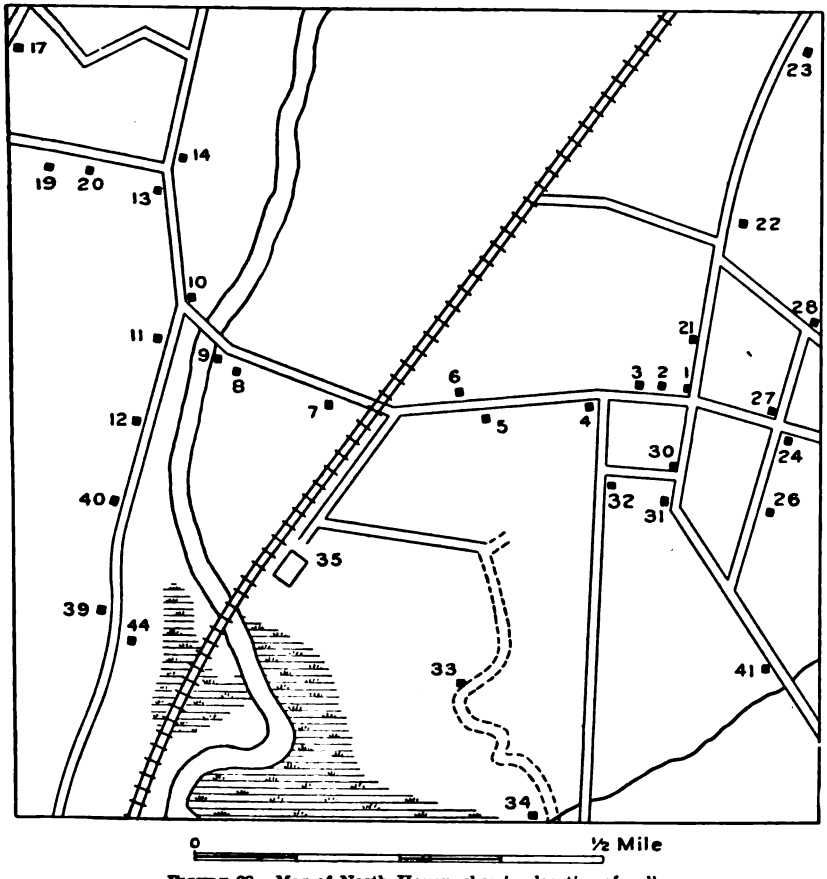

FIGURE 28.—Map of North Haven, showing location of wells.

22. Well sunk 35 feet in sand. Water is plentiful and not very hard.

23. Two wells; one at barn 25 feet deep with 3 feet of water; one at house 30 feet deep with 5 feet of water. Neither well runs dry.

24. Well 30 feet deep; has 5 feet of water. The first 25 feet are said to be in hardpan and the remainder in sand. Abundant water was found in the sand.

25. Well 30 feet deep. The first 25 feet are in the hardpan, then comes 2 inches of sand in which the water is found, and then about 4 feet more of hardpan. The water is plentiful, varies from 3 to 11 feet in depth, and is soft enough to be used continually for a laundry.

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26. Drilled well 128 feet deep. It is reported that the first 84 feet are in sand and hard gravel and the last 44 feet in hardpan.

27. Drilled well 140 feet deep; derives water at depth of 100 feet, near contact of rock and till. Water is hard, rises within 25 feet of the surface, and does not vary in amount with seasons.

28. Well dug in hardpan to a depth of 44 feet. In the spring it sometimes contains as much as 15 feet of water. "This water will rust a tin in one night."

29. A very old well, dug and walled with brick; 45 feet deep; amount of water varies from 5 to 15 feet.

30. Dug well, 29 feet deep; contains 4 feet of water.

31. Dug to a depth of 45 feet in course gravel. Became dry during one season.

32. Dug to a depth of 12 feet in sand and gravel. It was dry once, but only for a short time. Ordinarily about 2 feet of water stands in the well.

33. Family gets water from a spring which issues at the top of a layer of clay.

34. Well 15 feet deep; has 2 feet of water. Walled with brick, but abandoned on account of surface contamination.

35. Drilled well, 195 feet deep; yields 8 or 10 gallons a minute. The first few feet are in sand, then comes about 50 feet of clay underlain by red sandstone. There are several recently drilled wells in this neighborhood, and their use has been followed by a great decrease in the number of cases of malaria.

36. Water for drinking purposes is brought from a spring which emerges at the contact of sand and clay.

37. Dug through sand and strikes a clay stratum at 13 feet.

38. Dug to a depth of 15 feet 6 inches, where it strikes sandstone; contains 7 feet of water and does not fail.

39. Dug in rock to a depth of 15 feet; contains about 7 feet of water.

40. Well on the hill is dug to a depth of "about 50 feet," the last 40 feet being in sandstone. At this same locality a shallow rock spring with insufficient water was converted into a satisfactory supply by drilling 10 feet into the rock.

41. Dug well 7 feet deep, the last 4 feet in red sandstone. The ground water is seen to come from the northwest.

42. Well at barn dug to a depth of 13 feet 6 inches, in sand and gravel; yields hard water. Well at house, in the cellar, is about 15 feet deep; passes through gravel to hardpan, where an abundant supply of soft water is procured.

43. Conditions same as at No. 42.

44. Drilled well in sandstone with a depth of "over 100 feet."

VICINITY OF BRANFORD POINT—A COAST REGION.

The region about Branford Point is fairly typical of the coast resorts along the Connecticut shore. It includes rocky knolls, stretches of sand flats and beaches, and expanses of marsh land. The bed rock of this area is gneiss, much broken by joints and planes of parting. The soil cover is till and beach sands. The insufficiency of supply and the danger of contamination by salt water have made it advisable to conduct water by pipe line from Branford River and to make this the chief supply. Two small springs are reported from this area.

The following descriptions accompanying the map (fig. 29) give detailed information regarding conditions which are typical of the water at Connecticut resorts.

1. Well 25 feet deep; contains about 5 feet of water, which is soft enough to make good suds.

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2. Well has constant supply, medium in softness. It is 23 feet deep and contains 5 feet of water.

3. Well 24 feet deep; contains about 4 feet of water of medium softness.

4. Same depth and character as No. 3.

5. Well 27 feet deep; contains 3 feet of water.

6. One of the wells at this place is situated 5 feet from the edge of a salt marsh, but has never been known to become brackish. It is a driven well to a depth of 14 feet and contains 4 feet of water. The other well is sunk through glacial till, is 22 feet deep, and derives water from the contact of rock and till.

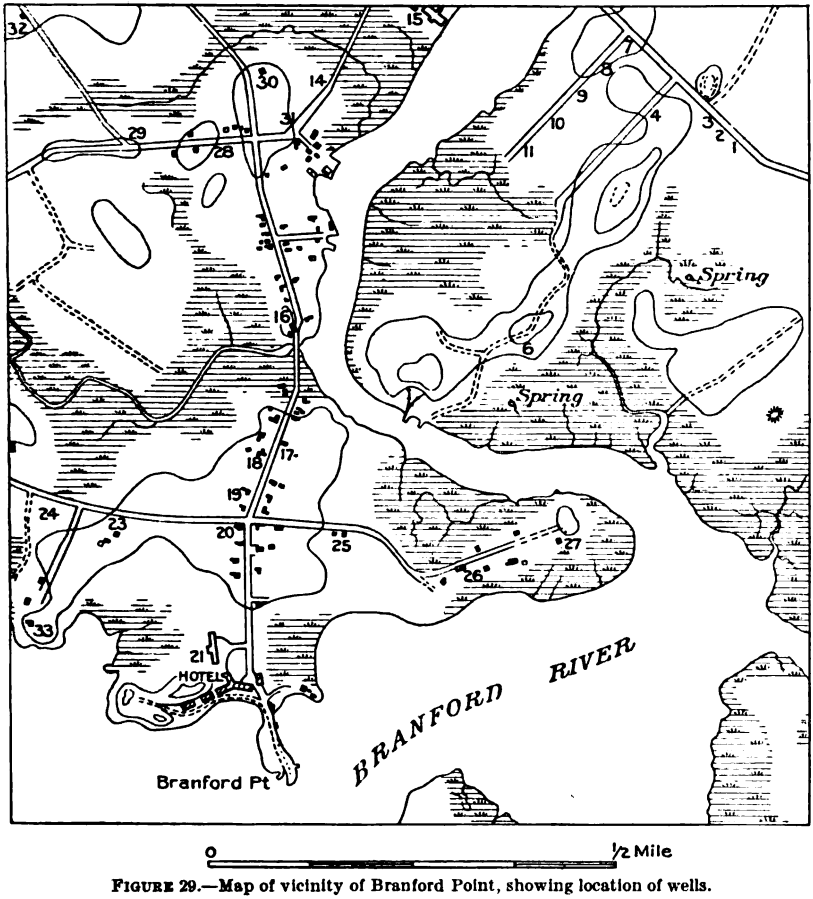

FIGURE 29.—Map of vicinity of Branford Point, showing location of wells.

7. A permanent well with water of medium softness; 32 feet deep; contains 4 feet of water.

8. Water said to be harder than in the other wells of the vicinity. The depth of the well is 33 feet and the water stands at 29 feet.

9. Well of hard water, 33 feet deep.

10. Dug to a depth of 25 feet; contains 4 feet of hard water.

11. Well 25 feet deep; has 4 feet of hard water; has never been known to fail.

12. Well 25 feet deep; has 4 feet of water.

13. Although situated very near the salt marsh and the tidal river, this well contains good water. It is 26 feet deep and has 3 feet of water. It has never failed.

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14. This place is supplied by a well driven 5 feet below the cellar floor. Fresh water enters "like a spring" at the edge of the marsh.

15. This factory is located mostly on "made land" recovered from a salt meadow. Wells were brackish and were accordingly abandoned.

16. Well 12 feet deep; contains 1 foot 6 inches of water. Water became brackish and has been discarded in favor of city water.

17. Well 23 feet deep; contains a constant supply of about 3 feet of hard water.

18. Well 25 feet deep; contains 2 feet of hard water.

19. Well 25 feet deep; has 3 feet of soft water; yield regular.

20. Well 22 feet deep; has 3 feet of hard water.

21. Well at barn 15 feet deep; contains about 4 feet of water. City water used at house.

22. Well sunk in rock much broken by joints which permit access of salt water.

23. Well 25 feet deep; contains 2 feet 6 inches of water which is little affected by dry weather. Water is claimed to be soft and palatable.

24. Rain water is used because wells give brackish water.

25. Two driven wells in house, each 24 feet deep. One of these wells has yielded a good supply of soft water for twenty years.

26. On a narrow neck of land between two salt marshes and not over 20 feet from one of them; 16 feet deep; contains 3 feet of hard water.

27. Well 17 feet deep; contains 3 feet of water, which is wholesome but a little hard.

28. Well 23 feet deep; contains a constant supply of hard water.

29. Water is medium in softness. Well 25 feet deep, with 3 feet of water, and does not fail.

30. Well 22 feet deep; contains 2 feet of water of an unsatisfactory quality.

31. Well 24 feet deep; contains 3 feet of water of medium softness.

32. Well 25 feet deep; contains 4 feet of soft, wholesome water.

33. Well 16 feet deep, with 5 feet of water of good quality.

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CHAPTER VIII.

CHARACTER OF GROUND WATER OF CONNECTICUT.

INTRODUCTION.

Pure water, as a compound of hydrogen and oxygen, is not known in nature. Descending rains take from the atmosphere considerable of its impurities and carry them to the ground; carbonic acid, sulphates and nitrates, especially near cities where coal is used for fuel, sodium chloride in the vicinity of the sea, and atmospheric dust contribute to the rainfall. Of the common gases rain water contains about 25 cubic centimeters per cubic meter, consisting of nitrogen about 64 per cent, oxygen 34 per cent, and carbonic acid 2 per cent. With the exception of chlorine, however, all the impurities of the air may be disregarded in the study of ground water.

After water enters the soil, it gathers materials from rocks and from decomposing organic matter. Sodium and potassium are taken from rocks containing feldspars. Calcium and magnesium are extracted from limestones and in less degree from rocks of other types. The minerals taken up by water in its subterranean course are chiefly silica, iron, aluminum, calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium, chlorine, organic acids of uncertain composition, and the carbonate, bicarbonate, sulphate, and nitrate radicles. Barium, strontium, lithium, and other elements occur less commonly in appreciable quantity. Free carbonic acid gas is an ordinary ingredient of natural water, and oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, hydrogen sulphide, and hydrogen phosphide in solution are occasionally encountered.

As the value of water for any given purpose is determined by its composition, chemical study of surface and ground waters becomes a matter of great practical importance. The composition of ground water in Connecticut is of prime interest, because only the larger cities within the State receive their water supply from brooks or lakes. Of the 168 towns in the State 140 depend entirely on wells and local springs for their water supplies, and it is estimated that 40 per cent of the population obtain water for domestic purposes from more than 90,000 wells and springs.

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COMPOSITION.

DETERMINING CHARACTERS.

The composition of the ground waters within the State is determined by the character of rock from which they are drawn. Shallow wells and springs in glacial drift contain substances leached from the upper soil and include nominal amounts of chlorine, sulphates, carbonates, nitrates, silica, calcium, magnesium, potassium, and sodium, with iron and aluminum in small amount, and a relative absence of organic matter. The deeper wells in the drift contain the same substances, but larger amounts of iron and less nitrates. Waters from glacial till and from rock are characterized by their relatively high content of calcium, magnesium, and sulphates. This is particularly true of water from sandstone and closely packed till or hardpan.

HARD AND SOFT WATERS.

As water takes up chemical compounds during its percolation through the ground, it often becomes what is commonly known as "hard" water, the term indicating its ability to form insoluble calcium and magnesium soaps when used for washing purposes. The greater proportion of the mineral constituents dissolved in shallow ground waters is obtained near the surface in what is known as the belt of weathering. This is the unsaturated zone between the ground surface and the level of the water table. The mineral constituents of this belt are relatively insoluble in their natural state, but they are continually undergoing oxidation, hydration, and carbonation, which result in the formation of compounds soluble in water. In the upper portion of the soil there is a large amount of organic matter which is oxidized through natural decay to carbonic and other acids. These acids, dissolved in water, attack the rocks and increase the mineralization of the underground supply. Calcium and magnesium in equilibrium with the bicarbonate radicle in water constitute temporary hardness, so-called because the minerals may be removed by boiling the water. If, however, the sulphate rather than the bicarbonate radicle is present the water is said to be permanently hard because boiling will not remove the dissolved minerals. The amount of calcium and magnesium present determine the relative hardness of water, and the proportions of the bicarbonate and sulphate radicles determine its character. The oxidation of iron sulphide is probably a source of sulphuric acid, which may decompose rocks with which it comes into contact. Among the most common constituents of crystalline rocks are silicates of iron, aluminum, calcium, and magnesium. These silicates in themselves are practically insoluble in water at ordinary temperatures, but in

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the presence of waters containing carbon dioxide they are subjected to chemical changes and are carried away in solution.

There are many other methods by which water obtains mineral matter in solution, but those cited above are sufficient to illustrate the processes. It has been estimated by Reade[a] that for the entire earth there is removed annually in solution 96 tons of material per square mile, consisting of calcium carbonate, 50 tons; calcium sulphate, 20 tons; sodium chloride, 8 tons; silica, 7 tons; alkaline carbonates and sulphates, 6 tons; magnesium carbonate, 4 tons; oxide of iron, 1 ton.

MATERIAL TAKEN INTO SOLUTION.

Although there are many factors determining the character and the amount of the materials taken into solution by underground water, only two need be considered in this discussion. They are the character of the material traversed by the water, and the distance which the water has traveled underground. The waters of the glacial drift exhibit great variability of composition and are almost equally divided between hard and soft waters. In general the waters from the finely divided clay till are hard and those from the sand and gravel deposits are soft, owing to the character of the material. The sand and gravel deposits are composed largely of coarse grains of quartzose materials, which are dissolved with great difficulty by water, but the till is made up in part of masses of finely divided heterogeneous material which not only offer a more varied assortment to be acted on by waters but also give greater opportunity for solution owing to their fineness of grain. The deep-well waters of the sandstone are much harder than those of the crystalline rocks. In the latter the crevices afford the only passage for the water, and consequently the solvent action of the water is largely confined to the immediate walls of the crevices. In sandstone, however, the water traverses the entire rock, passing not only through the seams but also through the small pores between the grains, and thus has a vastly greater surface for action. Many of the sandstones of Connecticut are arkoses containing as great variety of mineral constituents as the original crystalline rocks.

In regard to the distance that the water travels, it is manifest that the longer and the slower the passage the greater opportunity there will be for solution. Increase of heat and pressure increases the solvent power of water; the waters which have penetrated deeply and have been subjected to great heat and pressure often have a larger proportion of dissolved minerals than those at shallow depths.

[a] Reade, T. Mellard, Chemical denudation in relation to geological time.

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Analyses of waters from 13 wells in crystalline rock give an average of 132 parts per million of total solids. Analyses of 18 well waters derived from Triassic sandstone areas average 655 parts per million of solid matter. Exclusive of three well waters that contain over 1,000 parts of solid matter, the average for 15 well waters from sandstone is 377 parts per million. Five well waters from glacial drift average 263 parts of mineral matter. The analyses of 25 spring waters give an average of 73.5 parts of total solids. It is impossible to state from the available data whether springs from one source contain more mineral matter than those from a different source. The information at hand gives no indication of any definite increase of mineral matter with increase in depth of the well, and though there might be such increase in very deep wells, it seems that within the ordinary limits of well depth in Connecticut—between 100 and 500 feet—the relation of mineral content to depth has no practical bearing.

NORMAL DISTRIBUTION OF CHLORINE.

Chlorine, which is a constituent of common salt, is present in all natural waters and comes from salt deposits within the earth or from salt-laden spray from the ocean. In Connecticut there are no deposits of salt or other chlorine compounds from which waters might derive appreciable amounts of chlorine, but this substance is present in them in considerable quantity and the proportion of it in ground water decreases regularly with increase of distance from the coast. The obvious inference is that the natural waters obtain their chlorine from the minute particles of sea water that are blown inland by the winds. The amount of chlorine in normal waters of Connecticut has been determined for different parts of the State,[a] and a map prepared under the direction of Prof. H. E. Smith, of the Yale Medical School, indicates the normal distribution of chlorine by means of isochlors or lines defining the areas within which the waters in their natural state contain certain definite amounts of chlorine. (See Pl. V.) The value of knowledge regarding the normal distribution of chlorine is that it affords a ready basis for testing the purity of both surface and subterranean waters. Salt is present in all animal dejecta and eventually finds its way to the water courses, both above and below ground; consequently if a water contains more chlorine than the normal amount for the area in which it occurs, the presence of sewage or other contaminating matter may be suspected. Excess chlorine in wells immediately adjacent to salt water is not necessarily an indication of sewage contamination, but usually of the admixture of sea water.

[a] Rept. Connecticut State Board of Health for 1902, pp. 227-242.

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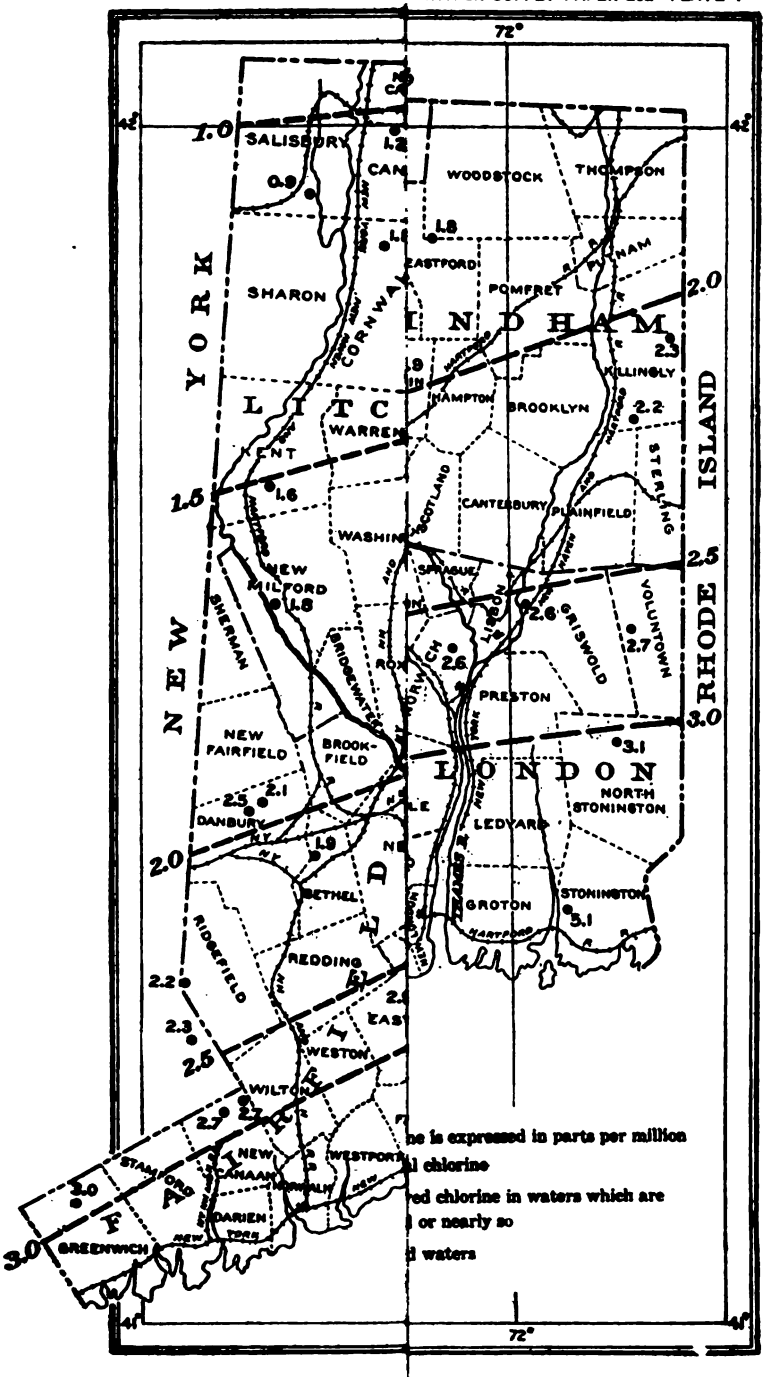

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USES OF WATER.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC PURPOSES.

The uses to which underground water is ordinarily put in Connecticut are relatively few in number. Owing to the ease with which large amounts of soft water are obtained, city supplies are usually taken from ponded reservoirs fed by surface drainage and by springs. For private residences and manufactories outside of cities, however, wells constitute the chief source of water supply for general purposes, and even in cities some manufacturing concerns find it expedient to use well water.

The three main purposes for which well and spring waters are used are for domestic supply, as in cooking, drinking, and washing, for boilers, and for coolers. A reasonably soft water is desirable for all these purposes and is particularly necessary in the case of boiler water, because hard waters form a scale in boilers, causing a heavy expense for additional fuel, cleaning of flues, extra firings, and boiler repairs. Soft water is preferable for general domestic use, though it is not so palatable as hard water. In breweries, distilleriès, and other manufacturing establishments where a supply of cool water effects a great saving in artificial refrigeration, well waters are economical.

WATER FOR BOILERS.

Most of the large manufacturing establishments in Connecticut are on the banks of the more important streams, where abundant water for boilers may ordinarily be obtained from the heavy sand and gravel deposits that fill the major valleys. Such supplies are reasonably soft and cold and are satisfactory for cooling and boiler purposes, although frequently unsafe for drinking owing to surface contamination. Wells penetrating a considerable distance into the rock are preferable as sources of drinking water. Water from wells in the crystalline areas is usually soft enough for boiler use, but that in the sandstone areas is likely to be hard and is frequently disastrous to boilers. A study of Connecticut waters with regard to their availability for steaming purposes has been made by George H. Seyms, chemist of the Hartford Steam Boiler Inspection and Insurance Company, who has kindly allowed free use of his valuable data. Mr. Seyms has classified Connecticut waters in regard to their use in boilers, taking into account the average proportion of the different constituents in the normal waters of the State and assuming that one-half of the total solids is incrusting matter. Water containing less than 250 parts per million of solid matter is pronounced good. Water containing between 250 and 500 parts of solid matter is fair for boiler use, but if the amount exceeds 500 parts the water is unfit

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for general boiler purposes. In making this estimate the fact has been taken into account that in most parts of the State supplies of soft surface waters may be obtained at reasonable rates. Increased hardness means increased cost of maintenance and where hard waters are used for boilers, as in the Western States, it is only because supplies of soft water are not available. The water supplies of Connecticut are recommended by Mr. Seyms for boiler purposes in the following order: (1) River waters (where uncontaminated by factory wastes); (2) ponded reservoirs; (3) small streams (as compared with rivers); (4) springs and shallow wells 30 to 50 feet deep; (5) deep wells. Wells in sandstone are less suitable as a source of water for boiler use than those in crystalline rocks.

CONTAMINATION.

INTRODUCTION.

That the ground water of Connecticut is liable to contamination and needs careful and frequent examination is well shown by the analyses of tainted waters made by the state board of health and by the typhoid epidemics which have occurred within the State. In 1893 the health officers of 119 towns reported on the condition of water supply,[a] and pronounced the water of only 82 towns unqualifiedly good. In 1898 analyses were made of water from 247 wells on the premises of public schools in the State; only half of them were free from suspicion of dangerous contamination and many were highly polluted.[b] In 1899 only three out of 14 suspected wells examined were declared safe.[c] In 1902 the water supplies of 101 hotels and restaurants and summer resorts were inspected, and only 20 out of 33 samples taken from springs, wells, and cisterns were considered safe.[d]

Sixty cases of typhoid, probably caused by water from a well 25 feet from a house, occurred in 1882 at Portland.[e] The drainage from a vault entering the quicksand caused typhoid at Guilford during the same year.[f] Water from a well in Middletown gave typhoid to an entire family in 1884.[g] The analyses of water from three wells at Madison in 1885 revealed the source of pollution which caused 14 cases of fever.[h] Contaminated water at Money Island caused 21 cases of typhoid in 1891.[i] The epidemic at Stafford in 1894 was traced to a polluted well.[j] The great epidemic at Stamford in 1895, in which 386 people were afflicted, was caused by milk delivered in cans which had been washed in well water infected by drainage from vaults.[k]

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[a] Ann. Rept. Connecticut State Board of Health, 1893, p. 110.
[b] Idem, 1898, pp. 279, 280.
[c] Idem, 1899, p. 21.
[d] Idem, 1902, pp. 223–226.
[e] Idem, 1882, p. 140.
[f] Idem, 1882, p. 144.
[g] Idem, 1884, pp. 79–81.
[h] Idem, 1885, pp. 342–344.
[i] Idem, 1891, pp. 205–213.
[j] Idem, 1894, pp. 232–238.
[k] Idem, 1895, p. 161.

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Typhoid at Easton in 1895 was traced to a well adjoining a pig pen.[a] Thirty cases of typhoid in Glastonbury in 1895 were caused by a contaminated well at Hopewell.[b] An investigation of the typhoid at Ridgefield in 1901 showed that the entire ground water of an area covering several blocks had been contaminated by sewage.[c] The typhoid epidemic, 84 cases in all, at Bristol in 1903 was due to infected water from a farm well and spring.[d] Several less conspicuous occurrences of typhoid are likewise directly traceable to contaminated ground water.

"It is now universally recognized that the degree of prevalence of typhoid fever in a given community is a reliable measure of the extent to which sewage is an ingredient in its drinking water. The prevalence of typhoid in cities is a true index of the quality of the water supplies."[e]

The annual death rate from typhoid in Connecticut has been steadily decreasing, and this satisfactory record is due largely to the increased attention paid to the character of water supplies.

CONTAMINATION BY SEWAGE.

Sewage is the most widespread source of contamination of water in springs and wells. Drainage from vaults, cesspools, broken sewers, slops thrown on the ground, pig pens, and other sources of filth passes readily into the ground water and is the common vehicle for substances dangerous to health.

LOCATION OF WELLS.

The location of a well is the most important consideration in obtaining pure water. The well should be placed at a considerable distance from any known source of contamination, on ground of relatively high elevation, and should be surrounded by an open, clear space, preferably grass covered. The direction of the flow of ground water for the area should be determined, if possible. Many wells in Connecticut are located in utter disregard of the simplest principles governing the movement of underground water. Instances might be cited where cesspools and other waste reservoirs are within 25 feet of wells used for domestic supply. For some wells the worst possible locations seem to have been selected. The writer has noted between 40 and 50 wells located on slopes below cesspools, in such manner that the contaminated waters, either in drift or in rock, are carried with certainty into the wells. It is not the depth but the location of a well which usually determines its purity, and a 20-foot well located with care may be much safer than a 100-foot well sunk without

[a] Ann. Rept. Connecticut State Board of Health, 1895, p. 90.
[b] Idem, 1895, p. 99.
[c] Idem, 1901, pp. 301-305.
[d] Idem, 1903, p. 88.
[e] Idem, 1899, p. 21.

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regard to surrounding conditions. A good illustration of this is the well on the New Haven Green, a shallow well in the heart of the largest city of Connecticut. The quality of the water is good, because the surface about it is protected on the south and east by pavements and because its water is received from the Green, a grass plot 16 acres in extent, kept clean by the city authorities.

There is a general impression that soil will filter the impurities from water within a few feet of its source and that contamination of wells is due chiefly to material falling in at the top. No more dangerous error could be propagated. The purifying power of a soil is limited and it may easily be overburdened. In fact, the value of any soil filtration is uncertain, and it is impossible to state that water will be purified by passing through any amount of soil. The uncertainty is greatly increased by the existence of more or less open channels, which offer rapid passage to underground water with little filtration.

DEPTH AND CONSTRUCTION OF WELLS.

Shallow wells are much more likely to become contaminated than deep wells, and as probably 80 per cent of all wells within the State are less than 25 feet in depth, the importance of care in their maintenance is evident. There is in Connecticut, particularly in the rural districts, a strong prejudice in favor of the shallow, open well and a belief that clear, sparkling, palatable water is sure to be pure. The danger in these beliefs is very real, for certain parts of sewage tend to give water a sparkle which is highly appreciated by those unacquainted with its character. Drilled or bored wells have many advantages over shallow dug wells. There is less chance for foreign substances to drop into the well, and it is possible to shut off all surface and seepage water. The "old oaken bucket" has sentimental advantages, but iron pipes and creaking windmills are much better symbols of the purity of drinking water.

CONTAMINATION IN DIFFERENT ROCK TYPES.

Contamination of water in shallow drift wells has been the cause of many typhoid epidemics in Connecticut, as at Bristol, Easton, Glastonbury, Guilford, Madison, Middletown, Portland, Ridgefield, Stamford, and Stafford. The water supply at Camp Coffin was found to be contaminated in 1896 by water that collected in a pool used for washing clothes and reached the well by sinking through a considerable depth of sand and gravel. In 1903 the Chamber of Commerce of New Haven made an investigation of the local water supply, which led to the recommendation that all wells within the city should be abandoned as sources of water for domestic uses. The wells examined are mostly in till or stratified drift, range in depth from 20 to 220 feet,

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and are located in all sections of the city. Six samples were taken from wells 20 to 30 feet deep, eight from wells 30 to 50 feet deep, five from wells 50 to 100 feet deep, and nine from wells over 100 feet deep. The committee reported that, with the exception of a few samples from the outskirts of the city, all showed evidence of a past contamination in a more or less marked degree. In Hartford, Waterbury, and other cities analyses of water derived from sand and gravel deposits commonly indicate considerable sewage contamination, although the water is obtained at points 30 to 50 feet below the surface. In fact, it is doubtful if any well is safe in a thickly settled community.

Spring water may likewise become contaminated by sewage-laden ground water, as illustrated at Forestville and South Norwalk during the typhoid epidemics of 1900.[a]

Though drilled wells are much less subject to sewage and drainage contamination than shallow-dug wells of large diameter, equal care should be taken in their location. A number of deep wells have been drilled in the low central portion of Hartford, and many of them show heavy contamination in waters supposed to be derived more than 200 feet below the surface. This is a portion of the city which received for years a large amount of drainage, so that whatever water enters the rock through the soil carries with it considerable contaminating material. Some of this water finds a ready passage through more or less open joints and enters the wells. The contamination of many such wells results from imperfect casing and the consequent entrance of water from the surface. There is little doubt that in certain wells imperfect joints allow shallow waters to enter the well at the contact of the rock and the drift. Such poor construction may be due to carelessness, or to intention, owing to the desire of the driller to obtain a sufficient supply of water. The entrance of any water at the junction of the casing and the rock may be detected if a mirror is used to reflect light into the well.

That contaminated water may circulate through considerable distances of sandstone is shown by the experience of Hartford, already described. At the Wallingford Sanitarium a well was contaminated by gasoline which flowed through the bedding planes of rock for a distance of 225 feet at a depth of 8 feet below the surface. Many similar cases might be cited.

Even wells sunk in granite and other crystalline rock are not free from contamination by circulating water. The typhoid epidemic at Sachem Head was caused by drinking water from a well blasted in rock to a depth of 16 feet. It was shown that the contaminated water passed through joints for a distance of 6 feet. At Millstone

[a] Ann. Rept. Connecticut State Board of Health, 1900, pp. 274-285, 286-289.

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Point brackish water was seen to be supplied from a rock seam at a distance of 150 feet. Part of the ground water of Fishers Island is known to come through crystalline rock from the Connecticut mainland, 3 to 4 miles distant.

CONTAMINATION BY SEA WATER.

The Connecticut wells which have been contaminated by sea water are within 200 or 300 feet of open salt water, on old salt marshes, along tidal streams, or on islands. They are practically all in rock where the surface water has presumably been entirely cased off. The surface water, however, is usually fresher than that derived from the rock itself. In a well drilled for the Norwalk Iron Works Company, Norwalk, at an elevation 10 feet above sea level, fresh water was found in sand and gravel deposits at a depth of 60 feet, but salt water only was obtained at lower levels in the rock. The well was accordingly plugged at a depth of 60 feet and the rock water excluded. At many points along the coast pipes have been driven in deposits

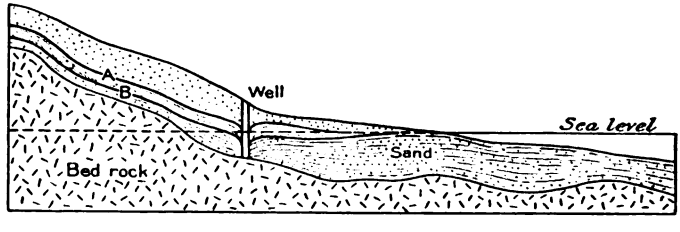

FIGURE 30.—Diagram illustrating the manner in which a well near the sea may be contaminated by salt water during the dry season. A, normal water table; B, depressed water table.

of sand and gravel near the shore and abundant supplies of fresh water have been obtained. These wells may, however, receive increments of salt water when the water table is brought below sea level, either by pumping or by dry seasons. In deep-driven wells near the shore which derive their supplies from the bottom of closed tubes, the head of fresh water is almost without exception sufficient to prevent the inflow of brine. In New Haven a series of wells have been driven through 6 feet of salt water into the sand deposits below and have obtained good supplies of fresh water.

In wells deriving water from rock in which the supply necessarily comes through fractures it is possible that the fractures may have such position as to give more ready access to sea water than to fresh underground waters. The possibility of contamination by this process increases rapidly with nearness to the sea, especially if the rock outcrops beyond the shore line. Figure 30 represents the direction of circulation of water contributing to such well, the ground water above the rock being entirely cased off.

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RELATIVE VALUE OF WATER SUPPLIES.

Experience has shown that water in Connecticut is to be recommended for domestic use in the following order: (1) Surface supplies, preferably from lakes that are constantly under supervision and subjected to frequent inspections and examinations; (2) deep wells so located that the surface area contributing to them is known to be free from contamination; (3) springs, especially deep-seated ones, like those along fault lines known to derive their water from regions not subject to contamination; (4) shallow wells and intermittent springs; (5) lakes and streams whose character has not been carefully determined.

ANALYSES.

In the following tables of analytical results the data are given in ionic form, in parts per million, having been recomputed, if not originally expressed in that manner. The column headings are in general self-explanatory. "Total solids" indicates the total dissolved matter found by evaporating a measured quantity of water and weighing the dried residue. "Organic and volatile matter" represents the difference in weight between the dried solids and the solids after being ignited at low red heat; the figure serves as a rough measure of the organic matter, though it also represents loss of water of crystallization, volatilization of some inorganic constituents, and other factors. The term "total hardness" is given to a figure found by adding standard soap solution to a measured amount of water till the mixture forms a good lather when shaken vigorously; the equivalent of the quantity of soap consumed is usually expressed as calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$). The "permanent hardness" is found by adding soap solution to water that has been boiled and filtered; it represents the hardness due to calcium and magnesium in equilibrium with acids other than carbonic acid. The "temporary hardness" is estimated either by subtracting the permanent from the total hardness or by titrating the water with normal acid.

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Analyses of well waters from crystalline rocks.

[Parts per million.]

No.[a]	Analyst.	Hardness as $CaCO_3$.		Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Organic and volatile matter.	Soluble residue.
		Total.	Alkalinity.													
10	Unknown	95											234	570		
18	H. Southern Eng. Co.	97	60		Trace.	31				71	18		22	193	9.1	
26	Unknown	36											9.4	126	10	
40	E. E. Smith	36	28		Trace.							4.0	4.0	69	9	
57	Unknown	26			Trace.							.4	22	132	14	
58	S. P. Wheeler				1.9	58					17		7.0	[b] 84		
59	G. H. Seyms							High.					High.	12,013		11,925
102	H. E. Smith			18	.9	15	1.8	10		59	13	3.1	4.0	95	6.4	
133	S. P. Wheeler	63											25	212	12	
177	H. T. Vulté	11	11									Trace.	9.3	106	6.0	
(c)	H. E. Smith		48									.3	9.7	202	8.0	
(d)	do		62									.2	4.3	102	12	
185	G. H. Seyms							High.					High.	1,052		868
[e] 185	do							High.					High.	4,746		4,668
192	Unknown											5.3	6.0	124	24	
198	G. H. Seyms										High.		High.	308		232
208	Levi Wilcox				Trace.	21							13	138	80	
[f] 208	do					19							26	203	75	
204	Unknown	60										.7	1.2	122	17	
209	State chemist	140											34	347	39	
210	G. H. Seyms													268		192
211	Levi Wilcox	101										11	28	297	116	
227	G. H. Seyms										High.		High.	4,056		3,852
[g] 227	do										High.		High.	208		176
233	H. E. Smith	35										.9	2.8	48		
237	do	30										.2	2.6	68	10	

[a] The numbers refer to the well records on pp. 78–89.
[b] Trace of lithium.
[c] Well of C. I. Hempstead, Glenbrook, Stamford; drilled 140 feet; 80 feet in rock.
[d] Well of Stamford Water Co., Stamford; 247 feet deep.
[e] Seven months later than first analysis.
[f] Same well at depth of 122 feet.
[g] Same well after one year's constant use.

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Analyses of well waters from sandstone.

[Parts per million.]

No.[a]	Analyst.	Hardness as $CaCO_3$.		Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Organic and volatile matter.	Soluble residue.
		Total.	Alkalinity.													
8	Unknown			20	15	[b] 326	[b] 106	118	([b])	([b])	1,201		213	2,524	410	
([c])	H. E. Smith	48										2.6	5.0	100	8.5	
15	G. H. Seyms													112		84
26	do					High.	High.				High.			316		224
([d])	do													288		164
([e])	do										High.			536		332
([f])	do										High.			2,312		1,256
([g])	do									High.				816		368
69	H. E. Smith	240	96								430	.4	13	628		
74	Unknown			18	.7	146	31	90			469	9.2	22	941		
([h])	G. H. Seyms													156		108
85	H. E. Smith			19	2.0	330	9.9	24			802	.2	3.7	1,296	57	
([i])	G. H. Seyms					High.					High.			376		284
112	Unknown	274			Trace.	82	41			150	164			722		
([j])	G. H. Seyms					High.	High.				High.			2,580		1,848
117	H. E. Smith	52				10						12		110	9.0	
152	do	28										.4	2.0	69	5.0	
165	Unknown			14		44	11	5.5		116	54		8.5	258	62	
189	do	110											10	241		

[a] The numbers refer to the well records on pp. 116–123.
[b] Carbonates of calcium and magnesium, 54 parts; trace of lithium (Li) and the phosphate radicle (PO_4).
[c] Well of Mount Carmel Bolt Co., Mount Carmel, Hamden; dug 35 feet deep and 30 inches diameter.
[d] Well of Billings & Spencer Co., Hartford; drilled 250 feet
[e] Well of G. W. Brown, Linden Building, Hartford; drilled 235 feet.
[f] Well of Hartford Woven Wire Mattress Co., Hartford; 250 feet deep; water at 200 feet; flow, 15 gallons a minute.
[g] Drilled well of Long Bros., Hartford.
[h] Well of Goetz Bakery, Manchester; drilled 200 feet deep in soft brownstone.
[i] Well of Charles Parker, Meriden; 1,000 feet deep.
[j] Well of Tuttle Brick Co., Newfield, Middletown; drilled 264 feet.

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Analyses of well waters from stratified drift.

[Parts per million.]

No.[a]	Analyst.	Hardness as $CaCO_3$.		Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Organic and volatile matter.	Soluble residue.
		Total.	Alkalinity.													
45	Unknown					74	11				26	28	44	404	48	
50	T. B. Osborn			12		31	30	85		170	83		105	528	98	
(b)	G. H. Seymis					High.								368		212
56	H. E. Smith	134											26	298	30	
(c)	Unknown				Trace.	36	Trace.	9		72	30		13			

[a] The numbers refer to the well records on pp. 152-155.
[b] Well of National Folding Box and Paper Co., New Haven; 2-inch test well 100 feet in gravel.
[c] Well of Waterbury Brass Co., Waterbury; 35 feet deep.

Analyses of well waters from till.

[Parts per million.]

Well.	Analyst.	Hardness as $CaCO_3$.		Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Organic and volatile matter.	Soluble residue.
		Total.	Alkalinity.													
(a)	H. E. Smith	21										1.8	2.6	79	15	
(b)	Unknown	54										2.2	5.9	107	15	

[a] Well of R. K. Jones, Turnerville, Hebron; dug 16 feet deep.
[b] Well of W. E. Bond, New Canaan; dug.

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[Parts per million.]

No.[a]	Analyst.	Hardness as $CaCO_3$.		Silica (SiO_2).	Oxides of iron and aluminum ($Fe_2O_3+Al_2O_3$).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Organic and volatile matter.
		Total.	Alkalinity.											
1	Unknown	43									8.8	6.0	94	23
4	R. H. Chittenden			18	0.3	4.0	1.1	4.0	15	8.0		1.5	45	
8	H. E. Smith			14	.2	2.4	1.1	3.1	14	1.8	.2	1.2	34	2.7
9	C. A. Seitz			25	14	12	9.0	116	323	5.6		2.6	346	2.2
19	H. E. Smith	22	18								2.6	2.5	50	7.5
23	S. P. Wheeler			6.0	1.2	2.1	1.4	14	12	1.3		18	50	
(b)	H. E. Smith	73	59								2.2	2.0	101	14
32	Unknown			9.5	1.0	10	6.0		58	1.6		1.3	61	
34	R. B. Riggs			7.2	Trace.	4.4	.4	6.7	17	3.5		5.4		
(c)	H. E. Smith	16	13								.1	2.5	37	11
(d)	do	23									3.7	3.2	60	11
(e)	do	58	47								1.1	3.7	72	12
(f)	do	36	30								.4	3.1	63	7.5
(g)	do		8.0								.0	1.0	22	8.0
55	do	23									.7	3.3	93	
(h)	do	44	40								3.0	3.1	62	10
62	Unknown											4.0	72	22
63	G. F. Barker			23	11	6.0	2.2	5.0	17	29		3.6	107	24
65	Unknown	20									9.7	2.0	52	16
(i)	H. E. Smith	42	38								1.5	4.3	72	18
69	R. H. Chittenden	7.0		10	.2	3.0	1.0	3.5	13	2.4		2.6	38	8.0
66	E. S. Sperry			6.3	.4	2.2	1.0	7.3	10	9.1		3.1	42	8.0
j74	Unknown			34	13	5.1	.3	12	6	14		3.2	122	29
83	H. E. Smith			11	.8	8.3	2.6	8.7	26	11	8.0	7.3	71	
90	S. P. Wheeler	28											56	20

a The numbers refer to the spring records on pp. 191–194.
b On Whitman place, at Farmington.
c Spring of J. V. Palmer, Millville, Naugatuck.
d Cherry Hill Spring of H. B. Gorham, Highwood, New Haven; from sandstone.
e Spring of Mrs. D. Auger, Fair Haven, New Haven.
f Spring of Stillman Water Co., near East Rock, New Haven.
g Spring of G. H. Bush, Norfolk.
h Quinnipiac Spring of L. R. Hemingway, North Haven.
i Spring of Z. Chaffee, Pomfret.
j Phosphates present.

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CHAPTER IX.

WELL CONSTRUCTION IN CONNECTICUT.

DUG WELLS.

The common type of well in Connecticut is naturally the most primitive type—an excavation in the ground to a depth below the level of ground water, the interior being lined with brick or stones. These wells are usually dug in clay, sand, and glacial drift, but a few, where the surface material is shallow, are blasted into the underlying rock. Some wells are dug into rock and water is obtained from crevices, but in general the rock excavation serves merely as a reservoir for water draining from the drift. Such wells are usually 2 to 4 feet in diameter inside the stone casing and from 10 to 50 feet in depth.

Very few dug wells are properly constructed in Connecticut and many are extremely old, it being not unusual to find wells sunk more than a hundred years ago. The ordinary stone casing is very inefficient as a protection against the entrance of surface water, the openings between the stones being in many wells large enough to permit the passage of rats and other small animals. Brickwork is used as a lining in some of these wells, but probably the safest method of protecting such a well against contamination is by tiling.

Too much care can not be taken in the location and protection of open, shallow wells. A well of the open type containing clear, sparkling water has been considered one of the most valuable possessions of home. Such wells are, however, peculiarly liable to dangerous contamination. Many of them are located on low ground, because water may be procured there at less expense, and some are walled up with poorly cemented stone and either open or covered only with loose boards. The tops of many of these wells are but a few inches above the level of the ground and may readily serve as resting places for impurities carried by wind or on the feet of animals and men.[a] The advantages of the small drilled or bored well, as compared with a dug well, are the decreased probability of the entrance of impurities at the time the well is put down, less opportunity for rats, frogs, and other animals to enter the well, and the ease of shutting out surface and seepage waters. It can not be too plainly stated that open wells are dangerous to health.

[a] See a discussion of this subject by Crider, A. F., and Johnson, L. C., Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 159, 1906, pp. 74–75.

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As dug wells usually reach but a few feet below the level of ground water, any fluctuations of the water table materially affect the yield of the wells. In dry seasons the water table may sink below the bottom of the well, with a consequent total loss of supply. This loss of supply, owing to drought, is more noticeable in wells located on hills than in those along stream channels.

Dug wells are of value in rural communities, but in cities and thickly populated areas they are extremely unsafe because of the general contamination of the soil and the impracticability of keeping out surface water.

The average cost of a well of this type, as ordinarily constructed in Connecticut, is about one-fourth to one-half that of the average drilled well, but when it is carefully constructed and cased so as to admit water only at the bottom, the cost is not far from that of a well constructed on more sanitary principles.

DRIVEN WELLS.

For wells in sand and gravel a method of well construction is recommended which, although commonly used throughout the United States, is little appreciated in Connecticut. This is the driven well, consisting essentially of a pipe, usually 1 to 2 inches in diameter, driven into the ground by means of a heavy weight. These pipes are perforated near the base either by boring round holes or by cutting straight slits with beveled inside edges. In some wells the perforated pipe is fitted with a jointed conical tip; in others a hollow open tube is fitted with a perforated section of some noncorrosive material and a sharp steel shoe, so that it can be driven directly into the ground. The contents of the tube are then washed out by water. As the water can enter the well only through the perforations, the position of the base of the pipe determines definitely the depth at which the water enters a well of this type, thus differing radically from a dug well, in which more or less water enters from top to bottom. Such wells are usually put down in a connected series known as "gangs," all connected with a central pipe or main through which the water is pumped. In very favorable localities large supplies may be obtained in this way at relatively small expense. There are several such gangs in New Haven; one of 34 wells at the Yale gymnasium which supplies the swimming pool with 150 gallons a minute was driven at a cost of $600. Another gang of wells furnishes the Yale dining hall with water for cooling, and 40 such wells, each with a diameter of 2 inches, are used by the Hygienic Ice Company.

Wells of this type can be driven only into unconsolidated material, where the water horizon is in sand or gravel. Many places in Connecticut are favorably situated for obtaining water from driven wells,

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particularly those towns along the main river valleys and near coast where the sand deposits are heavy. The average cost of s wells is 70 cents a foot and the yield and character of the water tainable at any place may be readily and cheaply ascertained means of a single test well costing not more than $20 or $25.

The quality of the water obtained from driven wells is larg determined by their location in reference to possibility of sew contamination. Although derived from greater depths the wa from driven wells of moderate depth is not necessarily better th that from dug wells situated in the same contaminated district. the flow of ground water through sand and gravel is more rapid th through till, in which the dug wells are commonly constructed. thickly settled communities the water of driven wells often sho contamination. There are many localities where unpolluted wa may be obtained by driven wells and this method of constructio advised for the Connecticut Valley lowlands, where larger yie and softer quality may generally be obtained from drift than fr the underlying sandstone.

DRILLED WELLS.

Of the various methods of obtaining supplies of undergro water, drilled wells should probably rank first in importance. though the most expensive, they are most free from contaminati and yield the most constant supplies.

As the process of drilling wells is not generally familiar, it see advisable to present a brief statement of the methods employed Connecticut. The two main methods of well drilling are known churn drilling and rotary or core drilling, the former being far more common. A churn-drilling rig includes a movable boiler engine mounted on a frame which is ordinarily drawn by horses or traction. Attached to the front of this rig is a collapsible der which acts as a support for the rope and tools used in the drill operation. The drilling tools consist of a heavy steel bit, with ot devices, such as jars and sinkers, which serve to prevent wedg of the bit, to add weight to the blow, etc. The bit is supported the rope, and by means of a walking beam or other device is lift and allowed to drop suddenly 20 to 30 inches, giving a succession blows at the rate of 25 to 40 a minute. The sharp edge of the he bit breaks and crumbles the rock where it strikes, and by continu twisting the supporting rope the bit is made to strike a new s each time. The result is a round and even hole with a diam slightly greater than the width of the bit. The diameter of the c hole is usually 6 inches, although 8-inch wells are not uncommon.

Owing to the presence of glacial drift, a layer of sand or gravel till is usually traversed before the drill strikes rock. The uncons

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dated material carries more or less "surface water," which it is desirable to exclude. To accomplish this purpose, the careful driller inserts a casing, consisting of heavy iron pipe with water-tight joints. The iron casing should extend from the surface to bed rock, and it is particularly important that a tight joint be made where the casing meets the rock. This junction should always be examined by means of reflected light from a mirror to detect the presence of any surface water. Water is kept in the hole during drilling operations, and after every few feet of progress the tools are removed and the well cleaned out by means of a "sand bucket," a hollow tube with a valve at the bottom.

As the chief water horizon in drift is at the contact of rock and the overlying material, it is important to know the character of the rock mass encountered. This is not always easy to determine, for it is not an uncommon occurrence to strike large bowlders that lie many feet above the bed rock and may be readily mistaken for solid ledge. The driller may assure himself in this regard by drilling into the supposed ledge. If it is a bowlder he will pass entirely through it in the course of a few feet. Moreover, the nature of the rock will ordinarily indicate whether it is part of the underlying strata or a fragment carried from a distance.

The rate of drilling, or number of feet a day, varies widely with the character of the rock, and the price charged for drilling is ordinarily regulated by the driller's knowledge of the bed rock in the locality. In crystalline rocks—to which the drillers generally apply the term "granite"—the rate varies between 2 and 25 feet a day. The price for drilling in crystalline rocks varies between $2.50 and $8 a foot, the average being $4.25 a foot. In such wells the same rate is charged for the surface material as for the rock, but the driller furnishes the casing without additional expense. In sandstone drilling is much easier and the average price charged is about $2 a foot for a 6-inch well. For an 8-inch well the price is 50 to 75 cents a foot additional. The average drilled well costs more than a dug well and much more than a driven well, but it possesses advantages not shared by the other types.

Core drilling or "diamond drilling" has been employed with considerable success by one contractor in the western part of Connecticut. In this process the drilling tool consists of a rapidly rotating pipe, the end of which is edged with diamond fragments, chilled steel, or other sharp cutting material which wears away the rock below the cutting edges and leaves a cylindrical core within the pipe. This core is broken off and removed by various devices, leaving a hole of the desired diameter.

Drilled wells are far safer in sanitary respects than either of the other types considered. The process of construction is such that

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with proper care the surface water may be entirely cased off and a supply obtained from a sufficient depth to insure safety. It should not be forgotten, however, that fissured rock may have openings large enough to allow the passage of water without adequate filtration; this is much more likely to occur where the rock outcrops in the vicinity of the well than where a mantle of glacial drift overlies the ledge. In one place near New Haven where the soil was only 2 feet deep, gasoline leaking from a buried tank at a distance of 150 feet entered the rock and was carried into a drilled well at a depth of at least 18 feet. The gasoline may have entered the well through a crevice or by percolation through the rock itself. Although the contamination of deep-drilled wells is possible, it is an unusual occurrence and is generally due to imperfect casing.

A dishonest driller may sink a deep hole into dry rock and arrange the casing in such a manner that the water from the soil and the upper surface of the rock enters and fills the hole, giving the appearance of a yield from a great depth. The water is large in amount and may show a satisfactory analysis. Sooner or later, however, the ground water establishes channels of ready circulation and any contamination from surface water may enter and penetrate to the bottom of the well.

To give a minimum possibility of contamination the following points should be observed: The well, of whatever kind it may be, should be located as far away from and as high above sources of contamination, like cesspools, open sewers, and barnyards, as circumstances permit; the well site should be selected where the glacial drift above the rock is deep, rather than on a thinly covered rock or on bare ledges; the well should be properly cased—a point to which too little attention is paid in constructing either dug or drilled wells. The driller usually furnishes casing from the surface to the rock, but where circumstances indicate that more casing is needed for safety the owner should not hestitate to assume the slight extra expense required to insure absolutely safe construction.

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CHAPTER X.

SPRING WATERS.

INTRODUCTION.

If the surface of Connecticut were level and the soil of uniform composition and texture, the ground water would tend to assume a plane surface at a small distance below the cover of soil. Such a water table would rise and fall with each increase and decrease in precipitation, but there would be no well-marked channels to conduct ground water to the surface. Connecticut, however, is a region of topographic inequality and variability of soils and bed rock and the imprisoned waters find many avenues of escape.

The normal outlet for ground water is near the level of lakes, swamps, and rivers, where it emerges in large amounts although rarely in definite channels. Below the earth's surface there are innumerable openings from which water is poured unnoticed into streams, lakes, or marshes along the shore line where salt water mingles imperceptibly with fresh. If the floor of Connecticut River were exposed suddenly to view by removing the water, we should see tiny rills issuing from cracks and seams and porous places in the rock and drift forming the river bed.

To speak broadly, any definite outlet for ground water is a spring, regardless of its size or of the geologic conditions which surround it.

TYPES OF SPRINGS.

There are springs which emerge from the ground with a force to turn mill wheels and with a volume to float a river steamer. There are springs which come from great depths and furnish vast quantities of hot water. The springs of Connecticut are of another kind—small and widely distributed, containing cold water of exceptional purity, and those suitable for domestic purposes and local supplies are to be numbered by the thousand.

The three types of springs commonly found in the State may be classed as seepage springs, stratum springs, and fault or joint springs.

SEEPAGE.

Many hillsides and lowlands bordering streams and ponds are saturated with moisture and the ground is soft and springy under the foot. This is especially noticeable during the early part of the year, when ground water is particularly abundant. These marshy places

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are "seeps" and are caused by ground water returning to the surface from the rocks beneath. Such diffused seepage, rather than drainage along definite channels, is the normal method for the escape of water from the ground, and, in fact, it is only where this return seepage is concentrated by some local geologic conditions that a stream issues from the ground as a spring.

When seepage is restricted to a limited area it may form a seepage spring, in which the water slowly escapes from sands or gravels over a space of a hundred square feet, more or less. In its natural state a seepage spring is marked by the presence of water-loving plants and in many places also by the presence of an oily-looking scum or film on the water, which is often mistaken for petroleum but which in reality is the result of decomposing vegetation. The particular factors which have served to concentrate the water at this place are not always easy to determine, but ordinarily a slight difference in texture of the sands or the presence of a thin mantle of drift over rock is sufficient to bring the water to the surface. As a rule the water can be still further concentrated by digging a hole or sinking a barrel into the ground in the zone of most vigorous seepage, thus furnishing a small local reservoir which receives the ground drainage from a larger area.

There is, of course, no sharp line between general diffused seepage, seepage springs, and springs proper, although the term "spring" ordinarily implies a distinct stream of water issuing with some force from an opening a few inches or, at most, a few feet in diameter. No distinct channel need be exposed at the surface, but there must be at hand a definite horizon or zone along which the circulation of ground water is sufficiently rapid to form a constant stream of appreciable size.

STRATUM SPRINGS.

The horizon most suitable for the transmission of large amounts of water is the plane between strata of different degrees of permeability. In such positions the water occupies a definite zone in some porous stratum and is confined by strata through which it passes with difficulty. A stratum spring may originate between two sedimentary beds, between drift and underlying rock, between clay and sand, or even between sands of slightly different structure. Where the edges of water-bearing strata are exposed at the surface, as in stream valleys or in artificial sections, the water is allowed to escape and soon tends to excavate channels along which further progress is rapid.

Where an impervious bed overlain by porous strata is exposed for long distances, a line of springs may be formed at the contact between the strata. Lookout and Raccoon mountains, in Tennessee, are bordered by a fringe of springs which reach the surface at the contact of the capping sandstone with a prominent bed of shale. In the

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Snake River canyon, Idaho, a line of springs of great volume emerges from sedimentary beds underlying lava. The edge of the North Haven plain in Connecticut is marked by numerous springs. This sand plain is underlain by clay which forms a basement bed for the ground water, and where the beds are truncated by Quinnipiac River springs emerge from the bedding plane between the clay and the overlying sands. Similar conditions are reported from the Po Valley of Italy, where the water penetrates the sand and remains underground for several miles, finally emerging as a long line of springs where the water table is forced to the surface by more pervious beds. Probably 75 per cent of the springs in this State owe their existence to the concentration of water between beds of sand, clay, till, and rock.

FAULT AND JOINT SPRINGS.

Ground water occupies all open spaces within the earth's surface and moves along joints and faults and seams as well as between beds of stratified series. The rock walls forming the two sides of a fault are usually sufficiently separated to allow the passage of water and the fissure is usually of sufficient depth to permit a profound circulation. Ground water from a large area may be contributary to a single fault zone and may exert pressure sufficient to drive the water along the crack with considerable power. Most of the famous hot springs of the world are located on fault lines. Many small springs in Connecticut are located along faults;[a] their temperature, however, indicates that the water in them does not come from very great depth.

TEMPERATURE.

The temperature of the ground below a depth of 50 or 60 feet is not affected by daily or seasonal changes at the surface, and the temperature of water which comes from those depths is therefore subject to only slight variation, remaining at about 47°, which is the average annual temperature of the State. No hot springs are reported from Connecticut, and temperatures under 45° are rare. Of the springs recorded on pages 191–194 only five have temperatures less than 45°, and none over 55°. The well-known Arethusa Spring at Seymour has a temperature of 47°, which coincides with the average annual temperature of the State. In a nonvolcanic region like Connecticut the temperature affords some indication of the depth from which water comes, and the absence of high temperature implies that even in fault springs the occurrence of water is relatively a surface phenomenon.

It is frequently reported that the water from springs is colder than normal in summer and warmer in winter. These statements, however, are not borne out by the facts.

[a] See map by W. H. Hobbs, in Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 67, 1902, p. 80.

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INTERMITTENT SPRINGS.

If Connecticut received a uniform and evenly distributed rainfall and were forest covered, the springs of the State would be practically permanent in position and constant in yield. The rainfall, however, is not uniformly distributed, the region is partly woodland and partly farms, and the strata consist of many varieties of rocks and soil. The result is that some springs are constant, some vary in yield, and some cease entirely during parts of the year. The flow of a spring is much more constant than the rainfall, because water in rocks is absorbed and stored much more rapidly than it escapes, and the rainfall from a large area returns to the surface through a few channels. The soil is a reservoir filled within a few hours and then allowed to drain off for several weeks. In Connecticut the supply of water in the soil is usually renewed by rain before the reservoir is emptied, and the springs are kept flowing at varying rates of speed.

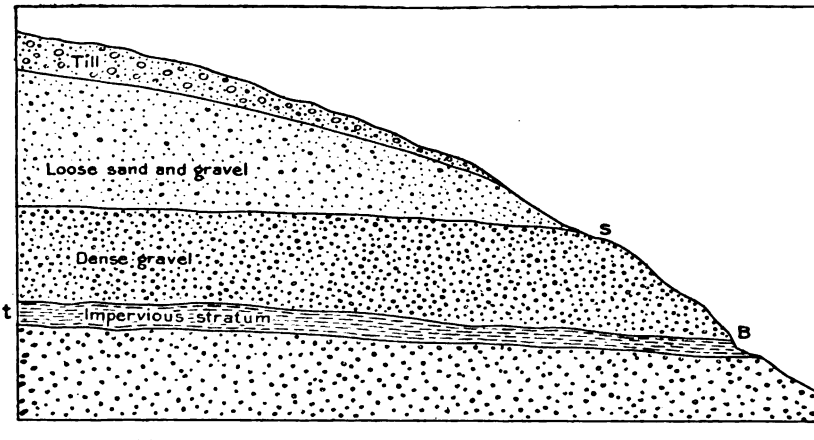

FIGURE 31.—Diagram illustrating conditions for intermittent spring. For explanation, see text.

The fact that ground water returns to the surface gradually is the chief factor which insures permanency of flow and carries springs and rivers through periods of drought. In certain parts of the country the principal supply for rivers is furnished by ground water, and during parts of the year the only water which enters Connecticut brooks is supplied by springs and seeps.

A spring which normally gives a continuous flow may become intermittent during dry seasons. The hill shown in figure 31 consists of sand and till, which allows water to be absorbed in large amounts and to sink to the impervious stratum along which ground water flows to the surface as a spring at B. When the water stands at "S," temporary springs may form, which cease to flow when the water's level drops to "t." In unusually dry seasons the water table may sink below the second outlet, thus producing an intermittent spring from one that has been constant for several years.

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MINERAL SPRINGS.

All springs contain mineral matter in larger or smaller amounts, but its presence may not affect the color or odor or taste of the water. In a popular sense, mineral springs are those which are notable for the large amount of their mineral content, for some conspicuous characteristic of the water, such as color, odor, or taste, or for the presence of unusual mineral ingredients considered to be of therapeutic value. Dissolved rock material is sometimes deposited about the mouths of springs in quantities amounting to several tons a year. Even the ordinary cold-water spring carries to the surface appreciable amounts of rock. It has been estimated that the combined activity of 900 ordinary springs in the eastern part of the United States results in piling up each year rock enough to form a block 10 feet square and 2 miles long.

Several springs in Connecticut are reported to have medicinal value. Many springs, however, pass as medicinal merely because they have a forbidding odor or taste, and prove on examination to have little in their favor. It hardly needs to be stated that disagreeable characteristics are no evidence of the therapeutic value of water. There are no springs in Connecticut with an unusual abundance of rare mineral constituents, and few that are conspicuous because of their color and odor.

VOLUME OF SPRINGS.

Springs vary in size from minute trickling rills to streams that give rise to small brooks. The amount of water in a spring depends directly on the available supply from which it is drawn, and this in turn is directly related to the amount of rainfall and to the size of the area which is contributary to the spring. The attitude and structure of the rock are also important considerations. The rock may be stratified, may have open bedding planes of wide extent, or may be dense and massive. Its texture may be coarse or fine. It may be easily soluble or resistant to chemicals. Furthermore, the distribution of farm and forest land and the relative position of hills, plains, and valleys have much to do with collecting water and guiding it along the channels leading to a spring.

USES AND PRODUCTION OF SPRING WATERS.

The chief use of spring water in Connecticut is for domestic purposes. Thousands of houses are supplied by springs, either in their natural state or covered and connected with pipes, and some small villages derive a large proportion of their common supply from such sources. Springs are so abundant and so widely distributed that most farm houses have spring water either directly at hand or easily obtainable by a short pipe line.

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The dairying industry requires large amounts of cold water flowing regularly through the cooling rooms, and Connecticut is highly favored in this regard.

Fifteen springs report sales of table water for 1908 and there are known to be many others which have more or less local use. About nine-tenths of the production is sold for table purposes. One spring is the site of a resort with accommodations for about 80 people. During 1908 the output of water increased about one-third and the value decreased one-seventh as compared with the record for 1907. The sale of water from 15 springs for 1908 was 424,826 gallons, at an average price of 9 cents a gallon.

The springs from which water was sold during 1908 are enumerated in the following list:

Althea Springs, near Waterbury, New Haven County.
Arethusa Spring, Seymour, New Haven County.
Aspinock Mineral Springs, Putnam Heights, Windham County.
Buttress Dike Spring, Woodbridge, New Haven County.
Cherry Hill Spring, Hamden, New Haven County.
Crystal Spring, near Little River, Middlesex County.
Elco Spring, Bristol, Hartford County.
Glenbrook Spring, Glenbrook, Fairfield County.
Granite Rock Spring, Higganum, Middlesex County.
Highland Spring, near Mount Higbee, Middlesex County.
Hillside Spring, Meriden, New Haven County.
Live Oak Spring, Meriden, New Haven County.
Mohican Spring, Fairfield, Fairfield County.
Oxford Mineral Spring, Oxford, New Haven County.
Park Spring, Norwich, New London County.
Pequabuck Mountain Spring, Bristol, Hartford County.
Quinnipiac Springs, Montowese, New Haven County.
Red Rock Spring, Meriden, New Haven County.
Rock Ledge Spring, New Haven, New Haven County.
Stafford Mineral Spring, Stafford Springs, Tolland County.
Varuna Spring, Stamford, Fairfield County.

RECORDS OF SPRINGS.

The following table and notes include the available statistics in regard to Connecticut springs:

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No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner or authority.	Location.	Yield per minute.	Temperature.	Variation in flow.	Quality.	Source reported.	Use.	Remarks.
					Gallons.	°*F.*					
1	Ansonia		T. W. Sanford	Steep hillside	25		Less in summer	Soft, iron	Crystalline rock.	General, sale.	Rockland Spring; occasionally becomes milky after heavy rains. See analysis, p. 179.
2	Avon	Collinsville	Mrs. F. Konold	Hillside				Soft	Rock	Supply for water company.	
3	Bethel		Gilbert Bros				Less in dry weather.	do	Gravelly loam.	Domestic	Seeps out gradually; supplies 12 families.
4	Bristol		Mrs. E. G. Fitzpatrick.		(b)	42	Constant	do	Gravel	Sale	Pequabuck Mountain Spring. See analysis, p. 179.
5	Canterbury	Parkerville	Susie E. Witter	Hillside	2		Less in dry weather.	do		Domestic	
6	do	South Canterbury.	Henry Baldwin	Slope	Large.				Gravel		Spring was dry several years and reappeared in a new location.
7	Canton	Canton Center.	C. R. Hamlin								Locality abounds in gushing springs.
*8	do		W. E. Simonds's estate.	Base of hill	75	49½	Constant	Soft	Crystalline rock.	Sale	Massacre Spring. Dug out, staved, and covered. See analysis, p. 179.
9	Chatham	Middle Haddam.	H. S. Hurd	Slope				Soft, chalybeate.	do		Hunts Iron Mountain Spring; dug and staved to a depth of 12 feet. See analysis, p. 179.
10	do	Cobalt	C. B. McLean	Base of hill	(c)	50	Constant	Medium soft.	do	Domestic	
11	Chester		B. Harwood	Hillside	2	42		Hard		do	Carries brown sediment.
12	do		First Baptist Church.	Near base of hill.	(d)		Less in dry weather and ceased once.	Soft	Crystalline rock.	do	Flat taste similar to rain water.
13	do		Moses Joy	Hillside	Large.	55	Constant	do			
14	Columbia		S. B. West	do				do		Stock	Water seeps out.
15	Cornwall	Cornwall Bridge.	C. W. Everett		(e)					Domestic, hotels.	55,000 gallons shipped weekly to New York.
16	Danbury		J. E. Walsh	Base of hill			Less in summer		Crystalline rock.	Domestic	Seeps out and collected in reservoir.
17	do		Danbury Spring Water Co.	Hillside	(f)		Constant			do	Seeps out; supplies 40 families.
18	do		Chas. Hull estate	Base of hill				Soft		do	Supplies 20 families, each 80 gallons per day.

a Additional details concerning springs marked with an * are given on p. 195.
b 4-inch pipe.
c 1-inch stream.
d ½-inch pipe.
e 4-inch stream.
f 5,000 gallons per day.

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No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner or authority.	Location.	Yield per minute.	Temperature.	Variation in flow.	Quality.	Source reported.	Use.	Remarks.
					Gallons.	°*F.*					
19	Derby		John T. Cullen	Slope	3	46–52	Less in very dry summer.	Soft, charged.	Crystalline rock.	Sale	Spring is housed in; water retailed. See analysis, p. 179.
20	Ellington		Wm. H. Prescott	Hillside				Soft		Stock	
21	do		Francis M. Charter	Valley	10			Medium soft.		Domestic	
22	Fairfield	Westport	Marion B. Williams.		10		Constant		Crystalline rock.	Drinking	Gives yellowish deposits.
23	do		Mohican Spring Co.	Hillside	15		do		Rock, gravel, dry.	Sale	Mohican Springs; series of springs along a hillside. See analysis, p. 179.
24	Goshen	Milton	Elbert S. Richards.	Base of hill	Large.	46	Less in dry season.	Soft	Sand	Domestic, stock.	Water is warmer in summer.
25	do	West Goshen	S. A. Bartholomew	Hillside	Large.		Never failing	do		do	
26	do	do	H. G. Wright	Valley	(a)	55		Soft, iron		Domestic	
27	Hartford		Francis Goodwin	Hillside		53	Constant	Hard	Gravel	Drinking	
28	Kent	South Kent	Don C. Peet	do	Large.	48		Soft	Rock		
29	Lebanon		C. W. Martin	do				Soft, iron	do	Drinking	
30	Libson	Jewett City	E. F. Burleson	Hilltop	(b)		Less in dry weather.	Soft	Clay	do	
31	Meriden		Chas. Parker Co.	Valley	14	51		Soft, iron	Sandstone	Sale	Live Oak Spring; dug, walled, and covered.
32	Middletown	Highland	W. E. Wilcox	Slope	8	50	Nearly constant.	Soft	do	do	Highland Spring; dug and tiled. See analysis, p. 179.
33	Milford		Morton Grinnell	Valley		45	Constant	Hard	Gravelly sand.	Domestic	Supply for Milford Water Co.
34	Montville	Uncasville	Chas. S. Johnson	Base of bluff		50	do	Soft	Sand	Sale	Shantok Spring; constant temperature throughout year. See analysis, p. 179.
35	do	do	Eliza D. Geer	Base of hill				do	do		
36	do		Solomon Lucas	Hillside	17		Constant	do		Drinking	
37	New Britain		W. N. Dunham	Base of hill	8	48					Dug to depth of 4 feet.
38	do		American Hosiery Co.	Valley	750			Hard	Gravel	Bleaching, general factory use.	Dug out 30 feet deep and 15 feet diameter.
39	New Canaan		W. C. Clarke	Hillside	3			Slightly hard.	Sand	General	Water is collected in a cement reservoir.
40	New Hartford	Nepaug	Austin Beckwith	do	(c)			Soft, with iron and sulphur.	do		Carries a red sediment resembling iron rust.

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41	New Haven	Highwood	Marcus Wooding	Slope	Large.		Constant		Sandstone	Sale	Cherry Hill Spring; dug to a depth of 3 feet.
42	do		W. S. Swayne	Base of hill			do		Rock	do	Clear water.
43	do		City	River bank	4				Sand	Drinking	Cold Spring.
44	New Milford	Gaylordsville	H. H. Pomeroy	Near top of hill	(d)		Slight		do	Stock	
45	do	do	E. H. Austin	Valley	(d)	45-56	do	Hard		Domestic	
46	do	Northville	Starr Kinney	Hillside	30	42	Constant	Soft		Domestic. cooling.	
47	do		Leroy Randall	do	Large.		do			Drinking	
48	do		Bridgeport Wood Finishing Co.	do	(d)		Little variation.	Soft	Schist	do	Indian Rock Spring.
49	Newtown	Sandy Hook	Leroy Mitchell	do	15			Soft, iron	Rock	Domestic	
50	North Canaan	Canaan	J. S. Adams					Hard	Limestone		Numerous springs in vicinity, from limestone.
51	do	East Canaan	W. T. Owens								Numerous springs of excessively hard water in this locality.
52	do	do	R. C. Geer	Hillside			Constant	Medium hard.	Gravel	Domestic, stock.	
53	do		W. H. Camp	do	(e)			Hard	Limestone	General	
54	North Franklin.		L. A. Robinson	do	(f)		Constant	Soft		Domestic	
55	North Haven	Montowese	B. F. Judd	Elevated ground.	5		Less in dry weather.	do	Trap rock	Table, medicinal.	Hermitage Spring. See analysis, p. 179.
56	North Stonington.		Thos. B. Hewitt	Valley		50	Constant	do			
57	Norwalk	West Norwalk	Mrs. M. C. Hite	Hillside	7		do	do	Crystalline rock.	Domestic	Collected in a small reservoir pond.
58	Norwich		Carpenter & Williams.	do			do	do	Sand	Drinking	Puritan Spring; housed in.
59	Old Lyme	Lyme	Louis P. Dessar	do	2½		do	Soft, iron	Granite	Domestic	Deposits an iron sediment.
60	do	do	Chas. T. Ely	Slope	3	52	do	Soft	Sand	Drinking	From sand beneath hardpan.
61	do	South Lyme	Hatchells Improvement Co.	Hillside			do			Domestic	Supplies 5 families.
62	Old Mystic	Mystic	Edwin Lamphere	Flat			do	Chalybeate		Medicinal	Surrounded by a heavy iron deposit.
63	Oxford		S. P. Sanford					Iron, sulphur.	Rock	do	Deposits of iron from water. See analysis, p. 179.
64	Pomfret	Abington	Willis Covell	Hillside	Large.		Constant	Soft	Soil	Drinking	
65	do		A. B. Lapsley	do	1		do	do	Clay	Domestic	See analysis, p. 179.
66	Ridgefield		Chas. Holly	Hill	(g)	48	do	do	Crystalline rock.	Sale	Mamanasco Spring. See analysis, p. 179.
67	do		B. A. Bryon	Hillside	5	40		do	do	do	
68	Seymour		T. F. Gilyard	do	1		Constant	do	Schist	Domestic	
*69	do		R. T. French	Base of hill	5	47		do	Sand	Sale	Arethusa Spring. See analysis, p. 179.
70	Sharon	Ellsworth	S. E. Everett	Hillside	1			do	Crystalline rock.	Drinking	
71	Sherman	Brookfield	C. I. Leach	do		50	Constant	do		Domestic	
72	Simsbury		N. W. Dodge	Valley	1	44			Soil	do	Seeps out.

a 1½-inch pipe.
b 1,000 gallons per day.
c ½-inch pipe.
d 1-inch pipe.
e 4-inch pipe.
f ¾-inch pipe.
g 2-inch pipe.

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Records of springs in Connecticut—Continued.

No.	Town.	Locality.	Owner or authority.	Location.	Yield per minute.	Temperature.	Variation in flow.	Quality.	Source reported.	Use.	Remarks.
					Gallons.	*° F.*					
73	Southbury		W. Lockwood and N. W. Mitchell.	Base of hill	(a)		Less in dry weather.	Soft	Gravel	Drinking	
74	Stafford Springs.		Stafford Springs Mineral Water Co.	do		52	Constant	Soft, iron	do	Hotel, sale.	Used for medicinal purposes.
75	Stonington	Mystic	B. F. Williams	Hillside			do	Soft	Rock	Domestic	
76	Stratford	Oronoque	D. S. Guthrie	do			Less in dry weather.	do	Sand	do	
77	Suffield		E. C. Holdridge	do	1½	45	Constant	do	Gravel	do	
78	Tolland	South Willington.	Mrs. E. J. Holman	do	1	50	do	do	Crystalline rock.	do	
79	Torrington		W. T. Church	do	(a)		Nearly constant.	do	Schist	Sale	Mica Spring.
80	do		Coe Brass Co	Base of hill	(a)	50			Rock	Drinking	
81	Vernon	Rockville	Edgar Keeney	Base of bluff	Small.		Little variation	Soft	Crystalline rock.	Domestic	Supplies 3 families.
82	Warren	New Preston	Geo. C. Hopkins	Hillside	(b)		Less in dry weather.	do	Hardpan	do	
83	Westport	Southport	John H. Jennings	Base of hill	Good.	50	Constant	do		Sale	Port Royal Spring. See analysis, p. 179.
84	Wilton		Edward Olmstead	Hillside			Varies		Crystalline rock.	Domestic	
85	Winchester	Winsted	R. E. Holmes	Base of hill	(c)	50	Increases with heavy rain.	Soft	do	Stock	
86	Windham	North Windham.	E. H. Hall	Hillside	10		Constant	do	Sand, gravel	Domestic	
87	Windsor		W. H. Harvey		2			do	Sand	do	
88	do		E. E. Case	Valley	3			do	do		
89	do		Windsor Water Co.	Hill slopes			Decreases 33 per cent in dry weather.	do	do	City supply.	
*90	Windsor Locks		Windsor Locks Water Co.	do				do	do	do	Reservoir fed by seepage springs from sand. See analysis, p. 179.

a 2-inch pipe. b 1¼-inch pipe. c ½-inch pipe.

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NOTES.

8. Located at the northern edge of Whortleberry Hill, a ridge of gneiss overlain by sandy till. It is situated in a large seepage area from which flows probably twice as much as issues from the spring. Although rock outcrops are near at hand, it is probable that the water comes from the till and is part of an underflow draining the ridge to the south. Water rises 6 inches above entering point.

69. Inclosed by four sections of 3½-foot tiling sunk into the ground. Water comes from the fine white sand probably resting on a ledge of gneissoid granite. The yield to the bottling works is 5 gallons a minute, and the overflow is probably 10 gallons a minute, giving a total yield of about 15 gallons. The spring is located on a rather flat terrace at an elevation above the river of about 120 feet.

On the hillside, 200 yards away from the Arethusa Spring and at an elevation about 25 or 30 feet higher, another spring issues from light-colored gneissoid granite, with the structure planes dipping about 4° SE. into the hillside. Both these springs maintain nearly the same flow throughout the year.

90. The water supply is obtained from three ponded areas located in a shallow valley and fed by springs. The topography is flat and the soil is porous. The run-off is accordingly small and the soil absorption large. The ground water is near the surface and emerges on a nearly level area at the contact of till and the thin overlying deposit of sand.

The following notes cover a few springs that are not listed in the table:

Granite Rock Spring, Higganum: This spring issues between two large granite bowlders on the upper slope of a high hill, but no rock outcrops are visible. The water is piped to a bottling works. The spring yields between 20,000 and 25,000 gallons a day, with a fairly constant flow, at a temperature of 49° F. when the air temperature is 77°. The output of the bottling works during 1905 was about 50,000 gallons. A second spring, recently excavated, is said to issue from a crevice one-eighth inch wide in the ledge.

Ausantowea Spring, Woodmont: Has been excavated to a depth of 20 feet through hardpan, sand, and gravel, the water horizon being in gravel. Flows 100 gallons an hour and varies little in yield with seasons. The temperature is 57° when the air temperature is 88°. The water is bottled and sold.

Buttress Dike Spring, Woodbridge: This "spring" is in reality a flowing well in which water rises 18 inches above the ground. It is on the side of a steep hill composed of chlorite schist and overlain by a thin layer of sandy till containing numerous heavy bowlders. The water appears to come from a vertical cleavage joint in the rock.

Springs of T. T. Wilcox, two-fifths of a mile southeast of Highland station: Three springs, two of which are reported by Mr. Wilcox to furnish 51 barrels a day, with no seasonal variation, at a temperature of 48° to 50° F. The only contributing area at a higher level than the spring is a hill with an elevation of less than 40 feet and covered with a thin layer of till. The water apparently reaches the surface by working along the bedding planes between sandstone and red shale. This requires a movement up a slope of about 15°.

Spring of Charles Parker, 1 mile southeast of Meriden: This spring is located on the west side of a hill composed of sandstone dipping southeast and capped with a thin covering of glacial drift. The water comes from joints in sandstone, as illustrated on page 136. The temperature of the water is 51° F. when the air temperature is 56°.

Chalybeate Spring, Litchfield: This interesting spring, which was famous in the early days of Connecticut, was described as follows by James Pierce:[a] "It issues from an extensive bed of sulphuret of iron, situated on the eastern side of Mount Prospect, 4 miles west of the village of Litchfield. The spring is copious and perennial, exhibiting in its course much oxide of iron and a white deposit."

[a] Am. Jour. Sci., vol. 3, 1821, p. 235.

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INDEX.

A. Page.

Acknowledgments to those aiding..... 9
Artesian conditions, figures showing. 48, 134, 135, 136
nature of..... 48–50, 133–135
occurrence of..... 96–97
Ausantowea Spring, description of..... 195

B.

Becket gneiss, character and distribution of.. 31
Bedding planes, occurrence and character of..... 107–108
water in..... 108–109
Bibliography of Connecticut waters..... 196
Branford Point, coast near, map of..... 163
coast near, water supply of..... 162–164
Buttress Dyke Spring, description of..... 96, 195

C.

Chalybeate Spring, description of..... 195
Catchment basins, figures showing..... 141
Chlorine, distribution of..... 168
distribution of, map showing..... 168
Circulation. *See* Water.
Climate, description of..... 20–27
Coast line, description of..... 17
Coast region, town in, water supply of..... 162–164
Conglomerate, water in..... 106
Connecticut River, flow of..... 29
Connecticut Valley, description of..... 17, 19
Contamination, causes of..... 53
Core drilling, description of..... 183
Cream Hill, precipitation at..... 24
precipitation at, chart showing..... 23
temperature at..... 25
Crystalline rocks, character and distribution of..... 35–37, 54, 56–60
distribution of, map showing..... 57
faults in..... 38, 65
joints in..... 37–38, 61–64
literature of..... 54–56
types of..... 54, 56–59
water in..... 37, 54–103
circulation and storage of..... 65–77
conditions affecting..... 60–65
wells in..... 92–103
contamination of..... 173–174
depth of..... 92–94, 100–103
limit of..... 93–94
flow of..... 96–97
locating of..... 92, 94–95, 101–102
pollution of..... 92
records of..... 77–91
figures showing..... 77
notes on..... 90–91

Page.

Crystalline rocks, wells in, success and failure of..... 91–92
wells in, water of, analyses of..... 176
water of, quality of..... 92, 94, 166, 176
temperature of..... 94
yield of..... 92–94, 95–96, 100–103
See also Igneous rocks; Metamorphic rocks; Granite; Gneiss, etc.

D.

Daubrée, A., on ground water..... 55–56
Davis, W. M., on Connecticut geology..... 39–40
Drainage, description of..... 17–20
Drift. *See* Pleistocene drift.
Drilled wells, construction of..... 182–184
Drillings, character of..... 59
Driven wells, construction of..... 181–182
Dug wells, construction of..... 180–181

E.

Elevations, data on..... 12, 13, 14, 16, 17
Ellis, E. E., on ground water in crystalline rocks..... 54–103
on occurrence and recovery of ground water..... 44–53
work of..... 9
Erosion, work of..... 33–34

F.

Farmington River, description of..... 19
Farmington Valley, description of..... 15, 17
Faults, figure showing..... 114
occurrence and character of..... 33, 38, 41–42, 65
relation of, to water..... 38, 114–115, 135
figure showing..... 135
springs from..... 187
Fissility, effect of, on ground water..... 67
Flowing wells, occurrence and character of..... 96–97, 133–135
view of..... 96
Forests, description of..... 20
relation of, to run-off..... 27–28
Fractures. *See* Joints.
Fuller, M. L., on artesian conditions..... 49–50
on ground water..... 53
on wells in trap..... 129–130

G.

Gaylordsville, flow at..... 29
Geography, description of..... 11–30
Geologic history, outline of..... 31–34
Geologic map of Connecticut..... 57

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Page.
Geology, descriptive, account of..... 34-43
See also Crystalline rocks; Triassic rocks; Pleistocene drift.
Glacial drift. *See* Pleistocene drift.
Glaciation, topographic modeling by..... 11,34
Gneiss, character and distribution of.... 36-37,58
joints in..... 98-99
water in..... 37
wells in..... 98-99,100-103
Gneissoid banding, nature of..... 63
Granite, character and distribution of..... 57-58
joints in..... 64,98
views of..... 60
weathering of..... 96
wells in..... 97-98,100-103
Granite Rock Spring, description of..... 195
Granodiorite, joints in..... 63-64
wells in..... 100-103
Grant, C. L., well records by..... 88,126
Gregory, H. E., on wells in Connecticut..... 55
Gregory, H. E., and Rice, W. N., on Connecticut geology..... 32
Ground, humidity of..... 27
Ground water. *See* Water, underground.

H.

Hardness, causes of..... 166-167
Hartford, flow at..... 29
Highlands, description of..... 12-16
rocks of..... 32
streams of..... 18
town of, water supply of..... 157-160
History, geologic, outline of..... 31-34
Hobbs, W. H., on joints..... 63
on rivers of Connecticut..... 16
Holmes, J. A., on ground water..... 55
Hoosac schist, character and relations of..... 36,38
Housatonic River, fall on..... 18
flow of..... 29
Housatonic Valley, description of..... 15,19
Humidity, records of..... 25-27

I.

Ice. *See* Glaciation.
Igneous rocks, character and distribution of. 35
intrusion of..... 31-32
water in..... 1
Industries, data on..... 30
Intermittent springs, description of..... 188
figure showing..... 188

J.

Joints, continuity of..... 66-67
direction of..... 63-64,112
intersection of..... 67-68
number of..... 70
occurrence and character of.. 37-38,40-41,61-64
relation of, to water..... 47-48, 65-70,109-114,141-142
to water, figures showing..... 135,136
to wells..... 93
figure showing..... 61
spacing of..... 65-66,112-113
springs from..... 187
views of..... 60,62,106
width of..... 69-70,113
water in, storage of..... 74-76
See also Fissility; Schistosity; Triassic rocks; Crystalline rocks.

K.

Page
King, F. H., on ground water..... 5

L.

Lakes, area of..... 19
Lava, flows of..... 16,33
flows of, occurrence and character of..... 38-40
Leakage, effect of, on water table..... 105
effect of, on water table, figure showing.. 105
Limestone, character and distribution of..... 59
distribution of, map showing..... 57
joints in..... 64,99-100
wells in..... 99-100
Long Island Sound, streams entering..... 18
Lowland, description of..... 16-17
streams of..... 19
town of, water supply of..... 160-162

M.

Map of Connecticut, showing distribution of chlorine..... 168
showing distribution of rocks..... 57
Marble, character and distribution of..... 36
Metamorphic rocks, character and distribution of..... 35-37
jointing in, view of..... 62
Metamorphism, occurrence of..... 32
Mineral springs, nature of..... 189

N.

Naugatuck Valley, description of..... 15
New Haven, humidity at..... 25-26
precipitation at..... 22-23,147
chart showing..... 22
temperature at..... 25
winds at..... 26
water level at, fluctuations of..... 147
Nordenskiöld, A. E., on wells in Sweden..... 56
Noroton Heights, flowing well at..... 97
flowing well at, view of..... 96
North Haven, map of..... 161
water supply of..... 160-162

P.

Pegmatite, character and distribution of..... 59
Peneplain, formation of..... 33
Percival, J. G., on Connecticut topography.. 13
Permeability, relation of, to wells..... 46-47
Phyllite, character and distribution of..... 36
wells in..... 99
Physiographic provinces, description of..... 12-17
map showing..... 13
Pleistocene drift, analysis of..... 138
character of..... 42-43,60,138-139
clay in..... 140
contact of, with rock..... 142
water horizon at..... 142-144
figures showing..... 142,143
grains in, size of..... 140
stratification of..... 139-140
water-holding capacity of..... 139
water in..... 138-156
quality of..... 145
storage of..... 140-142
wells in..... 142-143
cost of..... 147
depth of..... 144-145

Digitized by Google

Page.
leistocene drift, wells in, figures showing. 142, 143
wells in, notes on..... 151, 156
pollution of..... 172-173
records of..... 147-151, 151-155
water in, analyses of..... 178
height of..... 146-147
yield of..... 144-145
See also Till; Stratified drift.
leistocene epoch, land modeling in 11, 34
'opulation, data on..... 30
'orosity, nature of..... 45-46, 60-61
'recipitation, amount of..... 74
charts showing..... 21, 22, 23
records of..... 21-24
relation of, to water level..... 146-147
'ynchon, W. H. C., on wells in trap..... 129-130

Q.

Quartzite, character and distribution of.. 36, 58-59
wells in..... 99, 100-103
Quinnebaug Valley, description of..... 15
Quinnipiac Valley, description of..... 17

R.

Railroads, routes of..... 11-12
Rainfall. *See* Precipitation.
Rice, W. N., on Connecticut topography.... 14
Rice, W. N., and Gregory, H. E., on Connecticut geology..... 32
Rocks, permeability of..... 46-48
porosity of..... 46
relation of, to ground water..... 34
to jointing..... 62-63
to well digging..... 34-35
Run-off, rate of..... 28
relation of, to rainfall 27-28

S.

Saltonstall, Lake, water supply of..... 27
Sandstones, Triassic, distribution of, map showing..... 57
faults in, figure showing..... 114
water in..... 114-115
joints in..... 109-114
direction of..... 112
spacing of..... 112-113
view of..... 106
width of..... 113
occurrence and character of..... 39-40
quarries in..... 39
water in..... 104-105
leaking of..... 105
figure showing..... 105
quality of..... 132
temperature of..... 132
wells in..... 115-128
contamination of..... 173
depth of..... 131-132
flow of..... 133, 135
locating of..... 135-136
records of..... 116-123, 126-128
notes on..... 124-126, 128
water in, analyses of..... 177
height of..... 132
yield of..... 130-131

Page.
Schist, character and distribution of..... 36, 58
joints in..... 98-99
views of..... 62
water in..... 37
wells in..... 98-99, 100-103
Schistosity, effect of, on ground water..... 67
nature of..... 63
Sea water, wells contaminated by..... 92, 174
wells contaminated by, figure showing... 174
Seepage, figure showing..... 45
nature of..... 45
Seepage springs, character of..... 185-186
Sewage, contamination by..... 171-174, 182
Seyoms, G. H., work of..... 9, 169-170
Shale, water in..... 106-107
Shale, black, influence of, on water occurrence..... 39, 109
position of..... 39
Shetucket River, flow of..... 28
Siphons, use of..... 95
Smith, G. O., on water in crystalline rocks... 55
Smith, H. E., analyses by..... 9
Softness, causes of..... 166-167
South Willington, well at, diagram of..... 143
Springs, conditions for..... 49, 185
conditions for, figure showing..... 50
fluctuations in..... 51, 188
list of..... 190
notes on..... 195
records of..... 190-194
relation of, to joints..... 135-136, 187
figure showing..... 136
types of..... 50-51, 185-187
figures showing..... 50, 136
water of, analyses of..... 179
temperature of..... 187
uses of..... 189-190
volume of..... 189
yield of..... 190
Steam boilers, water for..... 169-170
Still River, description of..... 19
Stockbridge limestone, deposition of..... 31
Storrs, precipitation at..... 21
precipitation at, chart showing..... 21
temperature at..... 24
Stratified drift, character of..... 139-140
wells in, notes on..... 156
records of..... 151-155
water from, analyses of..... 178
Stratum springs, character of..... 186-187
figure showing..... 50
Streams, growth of, figure showing..... 45
Structure planes, nature of..... 63, 67
Surface water supply. *See* Water supply, surface.
Swamps, areas of..... 19

T.

Temperature, records of..... 24-25
Thames Valley, description of..... 15
Tide, effect of, on water table..... 52, 146
effect of, on water table, figure showing.. 51
Till, wells in, notes on..... 156
wells in, records of..... 147-151
water of, analyses of..... 178

Digitized by Google

Page.
Topography, description of..... 11-17
formation of..... 33-34
relation of, to water level..... 71-72
to water level, figure showing..... 71
to wells..... 100-103, 136-137
Trap, character and distribution of..... 59
joints in..... 113
view of..... 106
ridges of, formation of..... 33-34
wells in..... 128-130
water in..... 107
Triassic rocks, bedding planes in..... 107-108
bedding planes in, water in..... 108-109
character of..... 33
distribution of..... 38
fossils in..... 33
faults in..... 41-42
water in..... 114-115
joints in..... 40-41, 109-114
direction of..... 112
spacing of..... 112-113
width of..... 113
stratigraphy of..... 38-40
water in..... 104-137
conditions of..... 104
wells in..... 115-130
records of..... 116-123, 126-128
figures showing..... 110, 111
notes on..... 124-126, 128, 129-130
See also Sandstone; Shale; Conglomerate; Trap.
Typhoid fever, cause of..... 170-171

V.

Valleys, descriptions of..... 15-16
Van Hise, C. R., on ground water..... 54-55

W.

Warren, map of..... 158
water supply of..... 157-160
Water, underground, amount of..... 51, 52
analyses of..... 168, 176-179
character of..... 165-179
circulation of..... 44-51, 72-74
decomposition by..... 73-74
direction of..... 72-73
figure showing..... 45
composition of..... 166-168
contamination of..... 53, 165-168, 170-175

Page.
Water, underground, depth of..... 55, 93-94, 95-96
horizon of..... 142-144
figures showing..... 143, 144
materials dissolved in..... 167-168
quality of..... 94, 132, 145, 165, 166, 176, 179
relation of, to geology..... 34-35
storage of..... 74-76
temperature of..... 52, 94, 133, 187
uses of..... 169-170
weathering by..... 96
Water supply, surface, quantity available of. 28-29
source and character of..... 27-28
Water table, effect of leakage on..... 105
effect of leakage on, figure showing..... 105
effect of tide on..... 52
figure showing..... 51
position of..... 44-45, 70-72, 146-147
figure showing..... 143
relation of, to rainfall..... 146-147
to topography..... 70-71
figure showing..... 71
Wells, contamination of..... 53, 92, 165-168, 170-175, 180-184
construction of..... 172, 180-184
depth of..... 92-94, 100-103, 131-132, 136-137, 144-145, 172
flow of..... 93-97, 133-135
fluctuations in..... 52, 92-94, 95-96
locating of..... 92, 94-95, 135-136, 171-172
pollution of..... 53, 92
records of..... 77-91
figures showing..... 77
notes on..... 90-91
relation of, to geology..... 34-35, 97-100
to joints..... 74-76
figure showing..... 61
to permeability of rocks..... 46-47
success and failure of..... 91-92
water of, quality of..... 92, 94, 116, 176
temperature of..... 52, 94
water in, height of..... 133, 143-144
quality of..... 132
temperature of..... 132
yield of..... 74-76, 92-94, 95-96, 100-103, 130-131, 136-137, 144-145
Willimantic, flow at..... 28
Willimantic Valley, description of..... 15

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
GEORGE OTIS SMITH, DIRECTOR

WATER-SUPPLY PAPER 233

WATER RESOURCES

OF THE

BLUE GRASS REGION, KENTUCKY

BY

GEORGE CHARLTON MATSON

WITH A CHAPTER ON THE

QUALITY OF THE WATERS

BY

CHASE PALMER

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1909

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Water resources of the Blue Grass region, by George C. Matson	7
Introduction	7
Historical sketch	9
Need of the investigation	10
Geology	11
Geologic history	11
Classification of rocks	13
Ordovician system	18
St. Peter sandstone	18
Highbridge limestone	18
Lexington limestone	19
Winchester limestone	19
Eden shale	20
Maysville formation	21
Richmond formation	22
Silurian-Devonian system	22
Panola formation	22
Devonian system	23
Ohio shale	23
Carboniferous system	23
Waverly shale	23
Tertiary system	24
Irvine formation	24
Quaternary system	24
Glacial deposits	24
Bowlder clay	24
Loess	25
Glacial gravels	25
Alluvium	26
Geologic structure	26
The Jessamine dome	26
Faults	27
Joints and bedding planes	28
Physiography	28
Altitude of the surface	28
Lexington peneplain	29
Cretaceous peneplain	29
Caverns	29
Soils	30
Classification	30
Distribution	31
Texture	33
Drainage	34
Chemical composition	34

Digitized by Google

Water resources of the Blue Grass region—Continued. Page.
Surface waters 36
Ohio River 36
Kentucky River 37
Licking River 38
Minor streams 39
Underground waters 39
The source 39
Conditions of occurrence 39
The water table 39
Water in sand, gravel, and sandstone 41
Water in limestone 42
Joints and bedding planes 42
Formation of caverns 42
Small water passages 44
Water in shale 45
Water in interbedded limestone and shale 45
Special conditions in the Blue Grass region 46
Water in the Highbridge and Lexington limestones 46
Water channels 46
Wells 47
Quality of the water 48
Water in the Winchester limestone 49
Water in the Eden shale 49
Water in the Maysville and Richmond formations 51
Water in the Panola formation 52
Water in the Ohio shale 53
Water in the Waverly shale 54
Water in the alluvium 54
Amount of underground water 56
Modifying factors 56
Rainfall 56
Topography 60
Soils 60
Amount of water in the earth's crust 62
Artesian water 63
General principles 63
Artesian wells in the Blue Grass region 64
Recovery of underground water 66
Natural recovery 66
Artificial recovery 68
Wells 68
Well casings 70
Methods of raising water 70
Collection and storage of rain water 71
Cisterns 71
Reservoirs 72
Municipal water supplies 73
Sources of supply 73
Surface water 73
Underground water 73
Comparative value of underground and surface supplies 74
Pollution of underground water in the Lexington limestone 75
Notes on city supplies 82

Digitized by Google

Water resources of the Blue Grass region—Continued. Page.
Mineral waters of the Blue Grass region 86
Character of the waters 86
Production 90
County conditions 90
Anderson County 90
Boone County 92
Bourbon County 97
Boyle County 99
Bracken County 102
Campbell County 104
Carroll County 106
Clark County 108
Fayette County 111
Fleming County 116
Franklin County 118
Gallatin County 121
Garrard County 123
Grant County 126
Harrison County 128
Henry County 130
Jessamine County 132
Kenton County 136
Madison County 138
Mason County 141
Mercer County 143
Nicholas County 145
Oldham County 146
Owen County 148
Pendleton County 149
Robertson County 150
Scott County 152
Shelby County 155
Trimble County 157
Woodford County 159
Wells and well records 160
Quality of the underground waters of the Blue Grass region, by Chase Palmer. 184
Introduction 184
Acknowledgments 184
Industrial uses of water 185
Importance of quality 185
Steam making 185
Corrosion and scale 186
Salutary effect of scale 186
Action on boilers of ordinary minerals in water 188
Correctives of scale 190
Soap making 191
Laundering 192
Ice manufacture 194
Brewing and distilling 195
Comparative hardness of Blue Grass waters 197
Field assays of water 199

Digitized by Google

Quality of the underground waters of the Blue Grass region—Continued. Page.
Medicinal waters 213
General characters 213
Great German Springs 214
Knob Lick Lower water 215
Olympian Springs 215
Lead Springs 216
Kentucky Springs 217
Lower Blue Lick Springs 217
Upper Blue Lick Springs 219
Tainted waters 219
Analyses 222
Index 227

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Page.
PLATE I. Map of the Blue Grass region 7
II. A. Winchester Limestone, Winchester, Ky.; B. Lexington Limestone, Paris, Ky. 20
III. A. Kentucky River gorge north of Camp Nelson, Ky.; B. An open sink hole in Clark County, Ky. 38
FIGURE 1. A perched spring 40
2. Diagram of a cavern, showing different levels of the underground stream 43
3. Diagram showing difference in conditions of adjacent wells in limestone 47
4. Map showing average annual rainfall in eastern part of the United States 57
5. Diagram of a cavern, showing how sediment may be deposited by the underground stream 76
6. Diagram of a cavern, showing how sediment may be obtained by the underground stream 76

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Quality of the underground waters of the Blue Grass region—Continued. Page.
Medicinal waters 203
General characters 203
Crab Orchard Springs 204
Kiddville Epsom water 205
Olympian Springs 205
Estill Springs 206
Keo-Me-Zu Springs 207
Lower Blue Lick Springs 207
Upper Blue Lick Springs 210
Table waters 210
Analyses 212
Index 217

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Page.
PLATE I. Map of the Blue Grass region 7
II. *A*, Winchester limestone, Winchester, Ky.; *B*, Lexington limestone, Paris, Ky 20
III. *A*, Kentucky River gorge south of Camp Nelson, Ky.; *B*, An open sink hole in Clark County, Ky 38
FIGURE 1. A perched spring 40
2. Diagram of a cavern, showing different levels of the underground stream 43
3. Diagram showing difference in conditions of adjacent wells in limestone 47
4. Map showing average annual rainfall in eastern part of the United States 57
5. Diagram of a cavern, showing how sediment may be deposited by the underground stream 76
6. Diagram of a cavern, showing how sediment may be obtained by the underground stream 76

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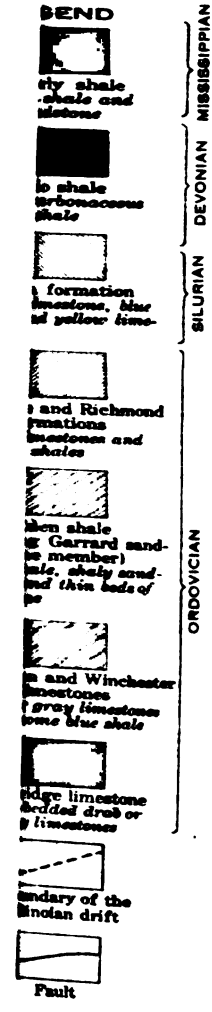

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ATER RESOURCES OF THE BLUE GRASS REGION, KENTUCKY.

By George Charlton Matson.

INTRODUCTION.

The area described in this report comprises about 7,225 square iles in northeastern Kentucky, lying between parallels 38° and 40° orth latitude and meridians 83° and 86° west longitude. It inudes the major portion of what is commonly known as the "Blue lrass region," together with small areas of the more mountainous porions of the State, and covers the following counties: Anderson, Boone, Bourbon, Boyle, Bracken, Campbell, Carroll, Clark, Fayette, Fleming, Franklin, Gallatin, Garrard, Grant, Harrison, Henry, Jessamine, Kenton, Madison, Mason, Mercer, Nicholas, Oldham, Owen, Pendleton, Robertson, Scott, Shelby, Trimble, and Woodford. It is bounded on the north and west by Ohio River; on the east and south by portions of the boundary lines of the marginal counties. (See Pl. I.)

Geographically the Blue Grass region forms part of the Appalachian Plateau, which extends from the eastern edge of the Allegheny Mountains and the Cumberland Plateau westward to the Mississippi lowlands. Because this part of the Appalachian Plateau is drained by Ohio River, Campbell[a] suggested that it be called the Ohio Basin. The northwestern boundary of the Ohio Basin was regarded as extending from Mississippi River near Cairo across Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio to the west end of Lake Erie.

No systematic study of the occurrence of underground water in Kentucky was made prior to the summer of 1906, when such work was assigned by the United States Geological Survey to the author of this paper, who completed field and office work within the following year; but it should not be inferred that no earlier observations were made. Numerous references to the occurrence of water are found in the early reports of the State Geological Survey, by Dr. David Dale Owen. Underground waters, especially the mineral springs of the region, are discussed in some detail in the reports issued while Prof. N. S. Shaler was state geologist. Many observations on the mineral springs of Kentucky were made by W. M. Linney while John R. Proctor was

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898, p. 1.

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state geologist. Since the beginning of the present Kentucky Geological Survey, of which Prof. Charles J. Norwood is director, the underground waters have been studied by Prof. Arthur M. Miller and others, and a recent report by Prof. August F. Foerste discusses the waters of the Silurian and Devonian formations of the east-central part of the State. Chemical studies of Kentucky waters were begun about the middle of the last century by Dr. Robert Peter, chemist of a university at Lexington, Ky., and when the first Geological Survey of Kentucky was organized Doctor Peter was appointed its chemist. After his death he was succeeded by his son, Dr. Alfred M. Peter. Any adequate discussion of the work done by these men is impracticable; the magnitude and great value of the work will be evident to all who examine the various reports of the Kentucky Geological Survey and the Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station.

In 1904 Dr. Chase Palmer began a chemical study of the waters of Kentucky, Salt, Dix, and Green rivers. This work was continued in 1905 and Doctor Palmer then extended his investigations to the underground waters of the State. The results of part of his work are presented in the chemical chapter which forms part of this report. Incidental references to the water resources are found in all the histories of the State, but the most important publications about the water resources of the Blue Grass region are the various reports of the Geological Survey of Kentucky and the annual reports of the Agricultural Experiment Station. The information in regard to the quality of the water is especially voluminous. This information consists largely of analyses made by Dr. Robert Peter, chemist of the first and second geological surveys of the State, and his son, Dr. A. M. Peter, chemist of the Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station. A part of the information given in the state reports has been compiled for publication in this paper, but most of it is in such form that it can not readily be arranged for presentation. A list of the principal reports dealing with Kentucky waters is presented herewith, and to these publications the reader is referred for further information.

LIST OF PAPERS CONTAINING INFORMATION IN REGARD TO KENTUCKY WATERS.

Geological Survey of Kentucky.
- David Dale Owen, director.
  - Report for 1854–55. 1856.
  - Second Report, for 1856–57. 1857.
  - Third Report, for 1856–57. 1857.
  - Fourth Report, for 1858–59. 1861.
- N. S. Shaler, director.
  - Reports of Progress, 1874–75, vol. 1, new series, 1876.
  - Reports of Progress, 1877, vol. 2, new series, 1877.
  - Reports of progress, 1877, vol. 3, new series, 1877.
  - Report of Progress, 1878, vol. 4, new series, 1878.
  - Report of Progress, 1880, vol. 5, new series, 1880.

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Geological Survey of Kentucky—Continued.

John R. Proctor, director.

Geology of Garrard County, by W. M. Linney. 1882.
Geology of Mercer County, by W. M. Linney. 1882.
Geology of Clark County, by W. M. Linney. 1884.
Geology of Mason County, by W. M. Linney. 1885.
Geology of Fleming County, by W. M. Linney. 1886.
Geology of Henry County, by W. M. Linney. 1887.
Geology of Shelby County, by W. M. Linney. 1887.
Geology of Oldham County, by W. M. Linney. 1887.
Chemical analyses, A, 1884, by Robert Peter, chemist, and John H. Talbot and A. M. Peter, chemical assistants.
The first, second, and third chemical reports of the Geological Survey of Kentucky; reprinted from vols. 1, 4, and 5, new series.
Chemical report, A, vol. 2, 1885, by Robert Peter, chemist, and A. M. Peter, assistant chemist.
Contains the fourth chemical report of the Geological Survey of Kentucky; reprinted from vol. 5, new series (pp. 5–93).
Chemical report, A, vol. 3, 1888.

C. J. Norwood, director.

The oil and gas sands of Kentucky, by J. B. Hoeing. Bull. No. 1, 1905.
The lead and zinc bearing rocks of central Kentucky, by Arthur M. Miller. Bull. No. 2, 1905.
Chemical report of the coals, clays, mineral waters, etc., of Kentucky, by Robert Peter. Bull. No. 3, 1905.
The Silurian, Devonian, and Irvine formations of east-central Kentucky, with an account of their clays and limestones, by Aug. F. Foerste. Bull. No. 7, 1906.

Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station.

First Annual Report. 1888.
Seventh Annual Report. 1894.
Eighth Annual Report. 1895.
Tenth Annual Report. 1897.
Eleventh Annual Report. 1898.
Twelfth Annual Report. 1899.
Thirteenth Annual Report. 1900.
Fourteenth Annual Report. 1901.
Fifteenth Annual Report. 1902.
Sixteenth Annual Report. 1903.
Seventeenth Annual Report. 1904.
Eighteenth Annual Report. 1905.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The pioneers of Kentucky entered the State through the mountain passes to the east, bringing with them, perforce, the barest necessities of life, and were compelled to rely on game for a large part of their food supplies. These early settlers found that certain saline springs were frequented by large game, and that these springs or the traces (trails) leading to them formed the best hunting grounds.

The sites of Boonesboro (founded by Daniel Boone) and Harrodsburg, the first settlements in the State, were chosen because of their proximity to good springs, and one of the springs near Boonesboro furnished salt water, which doubtless attracted deer and other wild

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animals. The same reason determined the location of scores of the early settlements and nearly all the important cities and towns of the State. Some of the Kentucky springs, such as Bryant Station Spring and Lower Blue Lick Spring, were later made famous in connection with the struggles of the settlers against the Indians, and still later large springs formed objective points for the armies of both Bragg and Buell.

Practically all the old mansions of the Blue Grass region were built where spring water was accessible, but when the inhabitants began to build houses upon the divides many wells and cisterns were dug. Doubtless the disastrous cholera epidemics of the first half of the eighteenth century stimulated the digging of cisterns, and during the last generation many have been constructed. In favorable localities the drilled wells have largely supplanted the dug wells, but they will probably never supplant the cisterns.

The early industrial enterprises of the Blue Grass region consisted of mills and distilleries, many of which relied upon springs for their water supplies; but with the development of the country, the establishment of new routes of travel and new centers of trade, and the enlargement of the industrial enterprises, the spring supplies became inadequate and many of them have been abandoned. At the present time much water for industrial use is drawn from streams or wells, although springs continue to hold a very important place, and in some localities drilled or driven wells are used.

As already indicated, the villages grew up about springs from which each family drew enough water for its individual needs; but when the villages came to install public supplies, they commonly sought either well or surface water, until at present only one city, Georgetown, takes its water supply from a spring. While it has usually proved impracticable to use either wells or springs for municipal supplies, many of the smaller towns have public wells or springs which furnish water for a number of families.

NEED OF THE INVESTIGATION.

The great need for definite information in regard to the water resources of the country has long been evident to both practical and scientific men, and in the Blue Grass region the subject has keen interest for sanitarians, householders, manufacturers, and civic communities.

In Kentucky, as elsewhere, the occasional outbreaks of water-borne diseases, such as typhoid fever, have emphasized the necessity of obtaining pure water supplies or preventing the pollution of present supplies. Hundreds or even thousands of dollars have been wasted in unsuccessful attempts to procure water by drilling deep wells, and the usefulness and the safety of many city supplies have been

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seriously impaired by improper location or faulty construction of wells. Two examples of useless drilling may be cited. At one place, where water was needed for the irrigation of flowers, an attempt was made to obtain a supply by drilling about 600 feet into a rock formation that furnishes large quantities of water in only a few places, and never furnishes water of the quality needed except within about 100 feet of the surface; and an attempt was made to supply water for a small city by sinking a well to a depth of nearly 2,000 feet in a locality where there was no possibility of procuring enough fresh water from a single well to supply more than two or three families, and where no water suitable for a city supply could be found more than 100 feet below the surface. Obviously a knowledge of these conditions would have effected great saving in time and money.

The problem of procuring water for industrial purposes is recognized as of great importance, particularly when a large amount of water of a certain quality or of a definite range of temperature is required. Many manufacturing plants have been located with an absolute disregard of the suitability of the available water supply, and the owners have subsequently found the cost of procuring the needed water one of their heaviest burdens. It is probable that some factories in the Blue Grass region will, in the course of a few years, be forced to pipe water from a considerable distance or move their entire plants.

In some parts of the area water for stock is obtained directly from springs and streams, and in other localities dams are built to impound surface water. Many stockmen, however, realize that stagnant water is inferior in quality, and some have already drilled wells to supply their stock; others would undoubtedly adopt the same means if they had any assurance that water of satisfactory quality could be obtained. A few have selected poor locations for the wells and have obtained inadequate supplies of water of unsatisfactory quality.

GEOLOGY.

GEOLOGIC HISTORY.

The rocks which underlie the Blue Grass region comprise formations belonging to the early periods of geologic history. The systems represented are known to geologists as Ordovician, Silurian, Devonian, Carboniferous, etc. The rocks belonging to each of these groups are further subdivided into the formations which are mentioned in the accompanying table and in the subsequent pages of the text. In the table the name of the oldest formation is placed at the bottom and the succeeding formations are arranged in regular order. This arrangement is a most satisfactory one, because when undisturbed the formations lie one upon another like the leaves of a book. However, in this case the leaves are great masses of stone in the form of

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clay, sand, shale, sandstone, and limestone, sometimes nearly homogeneous, but more often mixed together or arranged in successive beds from a fraction of an inch to several feet in thickness.

All the older formations of the Blue Grass region were deposited in water, and are therefore called sedimentary rocks. A careful study of these rocks will reveal many interesting facts concerning their history. Embedded in the limestones and shales are many shells, which represent the organic life which existed in the water while the rocks were being deposited. Some of these shells appear much like those which now live in the seas, while many others may be connected with forms now living by examining the rocks of successive geologic ages and noting the gradual modifications which have taken place. The relation between the shells of organisms now living in marine waters and those found embedded in the rocks of the Blue Grass region, together with many other facts, show that the formations were deposited beneath the sea. Although it is difficult to restore the outlines of the ancient ocean in which the geologic formations of the Blue Grass region were deposited, the composition of the rocks gives much information concerning the depth and character of the waters. As most of the shells must have belonged to organisms which lived in shallow water, the depth of the sea could not have been very great. This conclusion would also be reached by a consideration of the nature of the material comprising the rocks themselves. The worn character of some shells bears testimony of such wave action as would take place only in shallow water, and the presence of sand and mud, which have since been consolidated into sandstone and shale, is evidence of shallow water and the proximity of land to supply such sediments. The great thickness of some of the limestone shows the existence of long periods when the seas were comparatively free from sediment and animal life flourished and decayed, leaving their calcareous shells to be consolidated into rock. In the Blue Grass region the earlier formations appear to have been deposited in comparatively clear waters, for the older rocks are largely limestone. The younger formations were laid down in seas which were often muddy. and hence sandstones and shales predominate.

After the deposition of the limestones, sandstones, and shales of the Blue Grass region, the rocks were raised above sea level in the form of a low dome. Probably the arching of the strata had been begun at an earlier date, but it culminated about the close of the deposition of the Carboniferous rocks. The apex of this dome lies in Jessamine County, and hence it is known as the "Jessamine dome." From the apex the rocks dip gradually outward, sinking at the rate of a few feet per mile. In places the forces which produced the doming disrupted the rocks and caused the severed ends of the beds to slip past

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each other. Such breaks are known as faults, and the Kentucky River fault, which is shown in a solid line on the accompanying map, is an excellent example. Other smaller faults occur in various parts of the region. Following the doming came a long period of erosion, which reduced the surface to a low plain, known to geologists as a peneplain. Subsequent uplift permitted the dissection of the early peneplain and the formation of another at a lower level. The early peneplain is represented by the tops of the mountains which border the Blue Grass region, and the younger one by the uplands which surround Lexington. This upland, which is known as the Lexington peneplain, was formed during the portion of geologic time known as the Tertiary. The meandering streams of Tertiary time deposited broad belts of gravel, sand, and clay in their shallow valleys, and the remnants of these deposits constitute the Irvine formation. Since the deposition of the Irvine formation the Blue Grass region has been subjected to erosion, and the streams have cut deep channels, of which the Kentucky River gorge is an excellent example.

At the beginning of the Quaternary there was a great change in climatic conditions, which permitted the formation of a vast sheet of ice in northeastern North America. This ice sheet existed in the glacial period, and at the time of its maximum extent its southern border reached beyond Ohio River into Kentucky. After the ice had melted from the United States, there were other glacial invasions, which extended into northern Ohio, but did not reach as far south as Kentucky. During one of these glaciations, which is known as the Iowan, a deposit of buff-colored silt was spread over a narrow strip of land south of Ohio River from the vicinity of La Grange to Fort Thomas. This silt, which is called loess, is an important surface formation in the area mentioned.

A later glaciation, known as the Wisconsin, extended into Ohio. The waters derived from the melting of this ice sheet spread broad terraces of sand and gravel in the Ohio Valley. These terraces may be seen in the Ohio Valley, where they form broad flats above the level flood plains of the stream.

CLASSIFICATION OF ROCKS.

The name Blue Grass region has been restricted by some authors to the area in which rocks of Ordovician age occur at the surface, but the area described in this report includes also formations belonging to the Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous systems. The Ordovician formations, however, cover so large a part of the region that they are discussed more fully than those belonging to the other systems.

The following table shows the sequence, character, and thickness of the geologic formations found in the Blue Grass region and the amount and character of the water supply furnished by them.

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TABLE 1.—*Geologic column in Blue Grass region.*

System.	Formation.	Character and thickness.	Water supply.	
			To shallow wells.	To deep drilled wells.
Quaternary.	Alluvium.	Sand and gravel along principal streams; coarse clayey gravel along small streams.	Small supplies.	Water in abundance.
	Gravels (Wisconsin).	Sand and gravel in the valleys of the streams. 80 to 120 feet thick.		Water abundant, but hard.
	Loess (Iowan).	Buff loesslike silt, but lacking characteristic texture of loess. Up to 6 feet thick.	Unimportant.	
	Till (Illinoian).	Red or yellow pebbly clay; locally of assorted sands and gravels. 5 to 300 feet thick.	Sands and gravels furnish soft water in abundance to a few wells.	
Tertiary.	Irvine.	Yellow or red clays, sands, and gravels. 3 to 12 feet thick.	Rarely water-bearing; soft water in a few localities.	
Carboniferous.	Newman limestone.	Occurs in small areas on Waverly shale. Not important in this region.		
	Waverly shale.	100 feet or more of blue shale, covered by interbedded shales and hard, even-bedded greenish sandstones. Contains concretionary iron oxide at one or more horizons. 300 feet thick.	The sandstone furnishes very pure soft water at its junction with the underlying shale. The shale furnishes no water.	Not penetrated by deep wells in the Blue Grass region.
Devonian.	Ohio shale.	Thin-bedded carbonaceous black shale. 150 feet thick.	Yields an abundance of highly mineralized water. The most common mineral waters are sulphur, chalybeate, and alum.	Not penetrated by deep wells in the Blue Grass region.

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		Usually a cherty magnesian limestone with some shale beds. 30 feet thick.	Furnishes considerable water where the limestone rests on shale. The water is hard and contains magnesia.	Yields moderate quantities of magnesian water.
Silurian.	Panola.	Blue shales and yellow limestones, in places containing chert. Locally includes some sandstone. Varies greatly in thickness, with a maximum of 60 feet. Includes sediments of Niagaran and Onondaga age.	The limestones furnish good supplies of hard water containing magnesia. The shales supply some mineral water for springs and shallow wells.	The limestones furnish considerable water in some localities.
Ordovician.	Richmond.	Heavy-bedded arenaceous limestones, gray or blue, weathering to buff; about 10 feet of dense calcareous shale in the lower part. Locally an impure sandstone. 60 feet thick.	Furnishes an abundance of water in the limestone areas and where the sandstone is not too shaly. Water usually contains considerable magnesia.	Seldom penetrated by wells. The sandy phase may furnish some water.
		Blue or dove-colored nodular limestones and blue shale, the shale beds predominating. 125 feet thick.	Furnishes moderate quantities of hard water.	Seldom furnishes satisfactory supplies.
		Interbedded blue limestone and shale. Shale predominates in northern part of the region, but heavy beds of limestone occur farther south. 80 feet thick.	Where heavy beds of limestone are at the surface, good supplies of hard water are obtained from springs and shallow wells.	The limestone beds furnish considerable water where within 100 feet of the surface. Deep wells may encounter brackish water containing hydrogen sulphide. The best supplies are obtained where the limestone layers are near the surface.
	Maysville.	Interbedded blue limestones and shales, the alternate layers usually thin and nodular. In general the shales predominate, and the limestone layers are in places thin and shaly. Some moderately heavy beds of limestone occur at certain horizons, but the usual thickness of single beds is less than 1 foot. 230 feet thick.	This formation yields moderate quantities of hard water. Water conditions are most favorable where the formation contains most limestone at or near the surface. Contains many springs of moderate size, and shallow wells are commonly successful.	Seldom yields water at depths greater than 150 feet. The best supplies of hard water are commonly obtained within 50 feet of the surface, though in some localities good supplies are obtained at a depth of 100 feet or slightly more. Water encountered below the level of the surface streams is apt to be brackish and to contain hydrogen sulphide.

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TABLE 1.—*Geologic column in Blue Grass region*—Continued.

System.	Formation.	Character and thickness.	Water supply.	
			To shallow wells.	To deep drilled wells.
	Eden shale.	In southern part of region upper beds are of shaly sandstones, in some places concretionary, called the Garrard sandstone member; lower part is same as the Eden farther north. In northern part of region the formation consists of blue shales, containing some sandy layers and local beds of limestone. Maximum thickness of the Garrard sandstone member is about 150 feet, and it gradually thins northward. 200+ feet thick.	The sandstone supplies moderate quantities of water in some localities. The shale supplies small quantities of water.	Seldom water-bearing. Deep wells are unsuccessful.
	Winchester limestone.	Blue and gray limestones with some blue shales. Limestone layers commonly rough and in some places having waved upper surface. 60+ feet thick.	Moderate quantities of hard water.	Usually furnishes no fresh water, but may supply strong brines, which often contain hydrogen sulphide.
	Lexington limestone.	Gray crystalline limestone, usually lighter colored and more cherty than the underlying limestone. (Flanagan chert member.) 75 feet thick.	Yields an abundance of hard water for springs and wells. Contains many large underground streams and supplies large springs.	Many good wells. When penetrated below the level of surface drainage the supplies are saline and saline-sulphur.
		Lower 10-35 feet consisting of light-drab argillaceous limestone with shale beds, overlain by 100 feet of gray or blue thin-bedded nodular limestone, separated by thin partings of shale; at the top 20-60 feet of subcrystalline, gray, siliceous sand and locally phosphatic limestone. 194 feet thick.	Supplies an abundance of hard water for springs and wells.	Below the levels of surface drainage supplies mineral waters—usually salt or salt-sulphur.
Ordovician.		Heavy-bedded coarse-grained crystalline cherty limestone; usually gray. 30 feet thick.	Yields considerable hard water.	Will supply no fresh water when found below level of surface streams. May yield salt-sulphur water.

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Highbridge limestone.	Dense fine-grained gray or light-drab limestone, 90 feet thick, near the base; covered by several feet of soft fine-grained limestone containing calcite crystals and some pyrite. The upper 20 to 40 feet dove-colored fine-grained limestones, containing many calcite crystals and separated by layers of shale a few inches to 4 feet thick. The top layer usually a light-gray crystalline limestone. Near the top a bed of soft unctuous green clay.	Considerable hard water for springs and shallow wells.	Yields considerable salt and salt-sulphur water.
	Dense fine-grained limestones, arranged in heavy even beds; light dove-colored to gray. Dolomitic at the top and bottom and containing many seams of dolomite through the entire series. 20 to 30 feet thick.	Some hard water for springs and shallow wells.	Not distinguished from the other Stones River formations. Will yield nothing but salt or salt-sulphur water.
	Dense fine-grained massive limestone, in places partly crystallized. Usually dark drab or dove-colored. Heavy bedded, but with some shaly partings. 285 feet thick.	Yields considerable hard water for springs and shallow wells in Kentucky River gorge. Contains some caverns.	Yields salt or salt-sulphur waters only.
	Known only from well records. Limestone resembling the overlying beds; rarely shale. 100+ feet thick.		Yields nothing but salt or salt-sulphur waters.
St. Peter sandstone.	A siliceous limestone, not exposed and known only from well records. Occurs at horizon of St. Peter sandstone.		Yields strong salt-sulphur water under sufficient head to rise 580 to 600 feet above sea level. Furnishes flowing wells in the valleys of Ohio, Licking, and Kentucky rivers.

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ORDOVICIAN SYSTEM.

ST. PETER SANDSTONE.

At a depth of 100 feet or more below the oldest rocks seen at the surface in Kentucky, the dark, fine-grained limestones of the surface formation are underlain by a greenish or white sandstone or sandy limestone, the transition, as indicated by the well records, being abrupt. This underlying formation has been called Calciferous by the Kentucky geologists, but it is correlated and usually identified with the St. Peter sandstone of the Mississippi Valley by most geologists working north of Ohio River. Well records indicate that beneath the Blue Grass region the St. Peter is composed largely of fine-grained siliceous limestone, whose thickness has not been determined in Kentucky, but wells that have been drilled to a depth of 500 to 700 feet below its top show no marked change in the character of the rock.

HIGHBRIDGE LIMESTONE.

The fine-grained limestone exposed in the Kentucky River gorge in the Richmond quadrangle was named by Campbell[a] the Highbridge, and Miller[b] subsequently included under this name all the rocks exposed in Kentucky lying below the top of Campbell's Highbridge limestone. As thus defined, the Highbridge comprises 400 feet of massive drab or dove-colored fine-grained limestone, in some places so even grained that it resembles lithographic stone. As a rule, however, it contains crystals of calcite, and near the top some of the layers are largely crystalline. About 100 feet beneath the top it is divided into two readily distinguishable parts by dolomitic layers. The lower limestone is nearly always heavy bedded, but the most of the layers of the upper limestone are thin and interbedded with shale beds ranging in thickness from 1 inch to 4 feet.

The great thickness of the Highbridge limestone appears to indicate deposition in comparatively clear water, but toward the close of this period of deposition land-derived sediments predominated at frequent intervals, during which the thin shale beds of the upper limestone were formed.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed in the Kentucky River gorge from below Frankfort to a short distance above Camp Nelson, and some isolated exposures are found in Madison, Clark, and Fayette counties, where the Kentucky River fault brings the upper division of the Highbridge to the surface. The formation is also exposed in the valleys of some of the tributaries of Kentucky River. Thus it extends along Dix River to a short distance south of the line between Boyle and Lincoln counties; along Clear Creek in Jessamine County,

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[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

[b] Miller, Arthur M., The lead and zinc bearing rocks of central Kentucky: Bull. Kentucky Geol. Survey No. 2, 1905, pp. 10–16.

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south of Troy; along Jessamine Creek to a point within 5 miles of Nicholasville; along Hickman Creek to a point just north of Union Mills; along Boone Creek to a point just east of Athens. On the smaller tributaries the Highbridge limestone seldom extends more than 5 miles from the river. It does not appear on the upland except in the southern part of Jessamine County.

LEXINGTON LIMESTONE.

As originally defined by Campbell,[a] the Lexington limestone included 140 to 160 feet of strata resting on the Highbridge limestone and covered by 50 feet of cherty limestone, which was mapped as the Flanagan chert. More extensive stratigraphic and paleontologic work led Miller[b] to include the Flanagan chert with the Lexington limestone. Under this definition the formation consists of 200 feet or more of coarse-grained blue or gray limestones, in some places containing shaly partings and thin beds of bluish shale. The limestones are in part thick bedded and in part thin bedded and nodular. At various localities nodules and lenses of chert occur in the upper 50 to 75 feet of the formation.

The Lexington limestone represents deposition in comparatively clear water, but with occasional sediments, which gave rise to the shale beds. Plate II, *B*, shows a section of the formation.

The formation is found over a large area in the region surrounding Lexington, and it is generally considered the basis of the finest bluegrass soils. The northern line of the Lexington limestone passes across Harrison, Bourbon, Scott, and Franklin counties; the western line lies a few miles west of Kentucky River from Franklin County to Boyle County; the southern line crosses northern Garrard and Madison counties; and the eastern line extends through Clark and Bourbon counties. In a part of this central area it is covered by the next younger formation, the Winchester limestone. Small exposures of Lexington limestone are also seen at various points along Ohio River from above Belmont to below Moscow, but in this region the formation does not lie high enough above the stream to reach the level of the upland. The upper beds of the Lexington limestone are important water-bearing strata.

WINCHESTER LIMESTONE.

The name Winchester is applied in this report to the series of interbedded blue limestones and shales resting on the Lexington limestone. As described by Campbell in the Richmond folio, the Winchester limestone included 200 to 230 feet of blue shales and limestones,

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

[b] Miller, Arthur M., The lead and zinc bearing rocks of central Kentucky: Bull. Kentucky Geol. Survey No. 2, 1905, pp. 16-22.

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extending from the top of the Flanagan chert to the base of his Garrard sandstone. The Winchester of Miller's report on the lead and zinc bearing rocks of central Kentucky represents the lower 40 feet of the rocks which Campbell called Winchester. Later work indicates that the use of the term Winchester to include the entire series of limestones and shales between the Lexington limestone and Campbell's Garrard sandstone is open to objection. At least the lower part and possibly the whole of Campbell's Garrard sandstone is to be correlated with the upper portion of the Eden shale at Cincinnati. Indeed, when traced northward the lower part of this sandstone gradually gives place to the Eden shale. Although the upper boundary of this sandstone, as developed on the eastern side of the Cincinnati arch, appears to fall within the beds usually classed with the lower division of the Maysville, it is thought advisable to adopt the classification which makes the Garrard sandstone a member of the Eden shale and restricts the name Winchester to the shaly limestone of late Trenton age which underlies the Eden shale.

The rocks of the Winchester limestone are much like those of the Lexington, except that the proportion of shale is larger. (See Pl. II, *A*.) At several localities the top of the formation is marked by the base of a current-formed bed of limestone, 18 inches or more in thickness, which shows marked cross lamination and contains fragments of the underlying rock. Many bits of crinoid stems in the layer have led to its being called the "crinoidal layer." In the valley of Licking River this layer appears to rest on the Winchester, but, according to Mr. Ulrich, opposite Cincinnati it rests on the lower part of the Lexington. Thus there appears to be a marked unconformity above the Winchester. The maximum thickness of the Winchester limestone is probably somewhat greater than the thickness given by Miller.

The Winchester appears to represent a period during which frequent alternations of clear and muddy water gave rise to a series of interbedded limestones and shales. The numerous shale beds make the Winchester a rather poor water-bearing formation, but where it is at the surface it usually yields enough water for domestic and farm uses.

The Winchester is exposed along Ohio River on the eastern and western sides of the Blue Grass region. A narrow band of it surrounds the central area of Lexington limestone, and large exposures of it are found within that area.

EDEN SHALE.

The rocks of this formation, where typically developed, comprise about 250 feet of blue shale containing thin scattered beds of blue limestone. In the valley of Ohio River at Cincinnati the Eden

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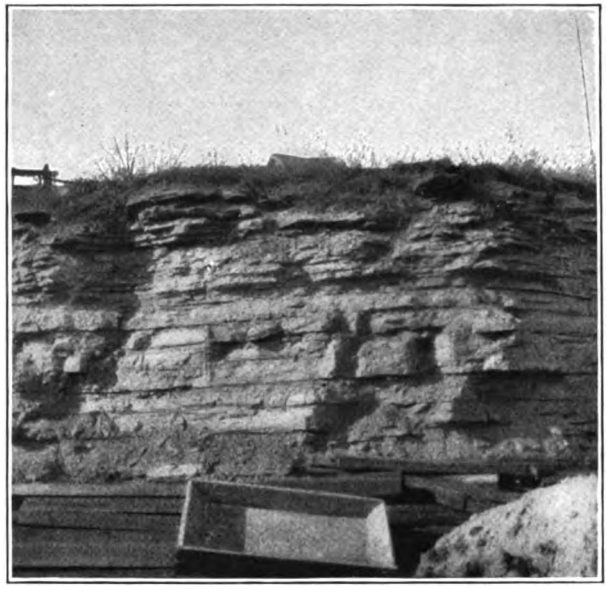
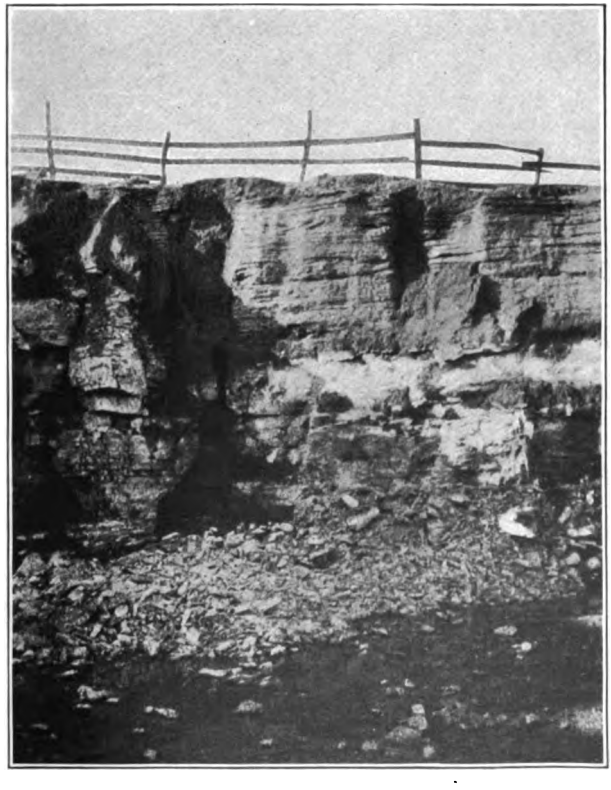


A. WINCHESTER LIMESTONE, WINCHESTER, KY.



B. LEXINGTON LIMESTONE, PARIS, KY.

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shale is locally separated from the underlying Lexington limestone by a few feet of gray shale containing characteristic Utica fossils. Near the southern border of the Blue Grass region the upper part of the formation is composed of the sandy shale and sandstone which, as already stated, were called by Campbell [a] the Garrard sandstone and are here called Garrard sandstone member, following the later definition which makes them a part of the Eden shale. The thickness of the Garrard sandstone member is variable, the maximum being about 150 feet. The thickness of the Eden shale where it includes the Garrard sandstone member also varies, but it is in no place more than 300 feet. Some of the limestone layers of the Eden have a wavy upper surface, which appears to be due to ripple marks formed during the deposition of the rock.

At the beginning of the deposition of the Eden shale a large amount of land-derived sediment appears to have been carried into the Ordovician sea. Evidence as to the source of the land-derived sediments forming the earlier beds is lacking, but the character of the Garrard sandstone member suggests that during the deposition of the upper part of the Eden shale considerable coarse sediment was being supplied from some land area to the south. The deposition of this coarse material continued throughout a large part of the period and into the earlier part of the Maysville.

The Eden shale is exposed along Ohio River and its principal tributaries and forms a rim from 15 to 30 miles wide around the central area of Lexington and Winchester limestones. The boundary between the Eden and the Maysville is difficult to map accurately because the Eden shale usually appears in the stream valleys within the areas of Maysville, and the Maysville at many places caps the hills of Eden shale some distance beyond the generalized boundary.

MAYSVILLE FORMATION.

The Maysville formation comprises a series of interbedded blue limestones and shales more than 200 feet thick. Few of the beds of limestone exceed 4 to 6 inches in thickness, and toward the top of the formation many of the beds are sandy. Evidence indicates that the Maysville formation is separable into several subdivisions, but the lithologic variations are as a rule so gradual that the writer found it impracticable to draw satisfactory lines in the time at his disposal. In general the proportion of shale beds is high in the lower and middle parts of the formation, but below the middle and near the top some heavy beds of limestone occur that are sufficiently thick to permit the formation of small caverns.

The transition from the conditions which existed during the deposition of the Eden shale appears to have been gradual, so that the

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

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lower portion of the Maysville consists of shale in the northern part of the area and sandstone in the southern part. The limestone beds of the Maysville were deposited during short periods when the sea was comparatively clear.

The Maysville formation is exposed over a large area in the Blue Grass region. It forms a rim about the central area of the Lexington limestone, reaching Ohio River on the north and extending nearly to the mountains on the south.

RICHMOND FORMATION.

The Richmond formation is probably separable into at least three members, but in this report only two subdivisions are recognized. The lower part of the formation consists of blue or dove-colored even-bedded limestone, containing much interbedded shale. Commonly the shale is the predominating rock, and in some places, especially on the east side of the Jessamine dome, the rock appears to be almost entirely composed of sandy shale. The upper division of the Richmond consists of greenish to buff sandy limestones or calcareous sandstones, with some beds of shale. Near Ohio River the upper beds are largely limestone, but toward the south they give place to arenaceous limestones and sandstones which show a marked banding on exposure to the weather. Apparently some of the rocks classified as Medina by the early surveys of Kentucky belong to the upper division of the Richmond. Exposures of the limestone of the Richmond formation are to be seen in the vicinity of Milton, and they extend southward beyond the southern line of Oldham County.

The Richmond was observed at various points on the east and west sides of the Cincinnati arch. It forms a band of varying width about the south and west sides of the Maysville area, and it is well developed outside the Maysville areas on the east side of the Cincinnati arch.

SILURIAN-DEVONIAN ROCKS.

PANOLA FORMATION.

The rocks of Silurian and Devonian age in the area under discussion are sufficiently distinct to admit of separation into at least four formations, but with the exception of the Ohio shale, their thickness and areal extent are insufficient to permit their discrimination on a map of the scale here employed. For this reason the name Panola formation, which was proposed by Campbell, is used for the Silurian and Devonian rocks lying between the top of the Richmond formation and the base of the Ohio shale.

The Panola formation includes representatives of Niagaran and Onondaga age. The basal beds of Niagaran age consist of a heavy-bedded yellow limestone followed by interbedded limestone and blue

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shale. At some localities these beds contain low-grade iron ore. Niagaran time appears to be represented on the eastern side of the Cincinnati arch by 10 to 20 feet of blue shale containing more or less intercalated yellow limestone, but the corresponding formation on the west side consists mainly of several feet of heavy magnesian limestone which in places contains a little chert.

The strata of Onondaga age consist of 15 feet of buff magnesian limestone, with some thin beds of shale near the base. Some of the layers of this limestone contain numerous nodules of chert, and locally it is crowded with fossil corals.

The variations in the thickness and character of the members of the Panola formation—the many alternations from limestone to shale—suggest frequent changes in the conditions of deposition, especially those of the Niagaran strata. Some of the differences in thickness may be due to irregularities in the rate of deposition, but others are probably to be accounted for by supposing that an unconformity exists between the Silurian and Devonian. No detailed study was, however, made of outlying parts of the area, where these rocks are exposed.

DEVONIAN SYSTEM.

OHIO SHALE.

This formation consists of a thinly laminated, black, carbonaceous shale, which reaches a maximum thickness of about 150 feet in Fleming County and thins westward toward the west edge of Boyle County, where it passes outside the Blue Grass area. In the eastern part of the region few of the exposures exceed a few miles in width and in Boyle County the width is less than a mile. The formation is the equivalent of the Chattanooga shale farther south.

The relation of the Ohio shale to the underlying Devonian limestone was seen at several points. In some places the transition from the limestone to the shale is abrupt; in others it is by interbedding of the limestone and shale. The Ohio shale appears to have been deposited during a period when the sea was gradually encroaching upon the land. The fine sediments and the plant remains of this formation suggest that the sea was shallow and the adjacent land low.

CARBONIFEROUS SYSTEM.

WAVERLY SHALE.

The Waverly shale, which has a maximum thickness of 300 feet, includes about 100 feet of dense blue shale, which passes upward into interbedded shale and sandstone. Near the base of the shale are numerous concretions of iron carbonate which weather to a reddish brown. In most places the sandstones have a greenish or

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bluish tinge and they are commonly even bedded, but in some localities they are decidedly concretionary. Some beds of limestone occur on the tops of the mountains, but the areas are so small that they are not shown in the geologic map of the region

TERTIARY SYSTEM.

IRVINE FORMATION.

The valleys of the principal streams in the Blue Grass region present certain peculiarities which are worthy of note. All the large streams flow in steep-walled canyons, many of which have been cut 300 to 400 feet below the level of the uplands. Bordering the canyon valleys are broad rock shelves which are but little lower than the surrounding uplands and which were formed at a time when the streams flowing across the surface of the upland had so little fall that they meandered widely. These streams left along the rock shelves deposits of yellow and gray unconsolidated sand, gravel, and clay, which were called by Campbell [a] the Irvine formation and were referred tentatively to the Neocene. That the materials in these deposits were derived in part from the formations near the headwaters of the streams is shown by the occurrence of pebbles from those formations.

The Irvine formation occurs in isolated patches along Licking River in Fleming, Nicholas, Robertson, Harrison, Pendleton, Grant, and Campbell counties. Along Kentucky River the deposits were noted in Madison, Jessamine, Woodford, and Franklin counties, and they doubtless occur in the other counties bordering the river above Franklin County. They were not observed below the western boundary of Franklin County, although they probably occur there.

QUATERNARY SYSTEM.

GLACIAL DEPOSITS.

The deposits of glacial age in the Blue Grass region include the unassorted bowlder clay, the loess, and the assorted glaciofluvial gravels that form the terraces in the Ohio Valley.

Bowlder clay.—On the upland the bowlder clay is composed of 3 to 10 feet of red or yellow clay containing fragments of limestone, chert, and granitic rocks. The clay appears to be reworked residual material, and the limestone and chert are largely of local origin, but the granitic rocks are rare and must have been brought from beyond the northern boundary of the United States.

The eastern boundary of the bowlder-clay deposit extends northward from the southern line of Oldham County to the east bluff of Ohio River at Carrollton, passing a few miles east of La Grange and

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

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Bedford. From Carrollton it extends northward, passing near Richwood, Boone County, and Buffington, Kenton County, and finally terminating at Ohio River near Fort Thomas. From Fort Thomas southward the boundary coincides very closely with the Ohio Valley to Augusta, at which point it swings eastward into Ohio. This boundary marks the farthest extent of the Illinoian ice sheet.

In the Ohio Valley, as shown by Leverett,[a] are deposits of partly assorted till which in some places rise to a considerable height above the river. The most conspicuous of these deposits are the glacial conglomerate at Split Rock, near Bellevue, Boone County, and a similar conglomerate at Augusta, in Bracken County. At Split Rock the conglomerate rises 250 to 300 feet above the Ohio, but at Augusta its height is only about 175 feet. Leverett mentions also that a morainic deposit on the east edge of the Ohio Valley at Carrollton occupies a sag in the hills between Kentucky and Ohio rivers and has a width of less than a mile, and a height of 200± feet above Ohio River.

The bowlder clay is correlated with the Illinoian drift farther west. Between the period of its deposition and the next glacial invasion there was a long interval known as the Sangamon interglacial epoch, during which the Illinoian drift deposits were probably more or less modified by erosion and weathering, but it is difficult to obtain evidence of these changes, because exposures are rare.

Loess.—The material classified as loess consists of 2 to 4 feet of buff loam, which rests on the till of the upland. As a rule, it contains more clay than typical loess and it lacks the loess texture. It closely resembles the residual clay of the region and can hardly be distinguished from the clay except where it rests on the till. The loess has usually been considered a deposit formed during the closing stage of the Iowan glaciation.

The deposition of the loess appears not to have been followed by any extensive topographic changes in the Blue Grass region. Some erosion has doubtless taken place, but the most noticeable change on the loess-covered area is seen in the numerous small sink holes where the glacial deposits are underlain by limestone beds.

Glacial gravel.—Glacial gravel forms terraces along Ohio River on the border of the Blue Grass region. It consists of 80 to 120± feet of coarse sand and gravel deposited from the waters supplied by the melting of the Wisconsin ice sheet. The materials composing this deposit are sand containing pebbles of limestone, sandstone, and the various granitic rocks which were carried by the glacier.

A deposit of sand and gravel, which ranges from 10 to 80 feet in thickness and which appears to be in part glacial and in part post-

[a] Leverett, Frank, Glacial formations and drainage features of the Erie and Ohio basins: Mon. U. S. Geol. Survey, vol. 41, 1902, pp. 25-58.

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glacial, is found along all the large streams of the region. Along Kentucky and Licking rivers fragments of terraces which rise to about the altitude of the glacial terraces are seen at many places. These deposits were probably made at the time when the terraces were being formed in the Ohio Valley.

Three well-defined terraces are recognizable at various points along Ohio River, but as in all of them the material is of fairly uniform character, the terraces have no effect upon the water capacity of the deposits. However, the depth to water in the glacial gravels is naturally greatest upon the highest terrace. A difference in the quality of the water has been reported in some localities, but on careful study it appeared that the variations in quality were due to the distance from the river and had no relation to the heights of the terraces.

ALLUVIUM.

On Ohio, Kentucky, and Licking rivers below the level of the glacial terraces are deposits of sand and gravel which are of recent origin. These deposits are nowhere extensive, and they exceed 50 feet in thickness at but few places.

Where the streams from the upland emerge in the valleys of the rivers they usually build alluvial fans, consisting of fragments of the country rock mixed with sand and clay. These alluvial fans are largest along Ohio River, but they also occur along the other large streams.

Many of the small streams of the region are bordered by narrow belts of coarse alluvium, which consist largely of partly rounded fragments of limestone mixed with more or less clay.

GEOLOGIC STRUCTURE.

JESSAMINE DOME.

The rocks of the Ohio Basin are not extensively folded and most of them dip slightly toward the northwest. The most important structural feature of the region is the broad arch, commonly known as the Cincinnati anticline. This arch extends from Nashville northeastward through Lexington nearly to Cincinnati, north of which it divides, one branch continuing northward, the other turning toward the northwest. South of Cincinnati the arch is separable into two broad domes; one of these culminates near Nashville, Tenn.; the apex of the other is in Jessamine County in central Kentucky. The Jessamine dome, as it has been called, has been so completely beveled by erosion that its dome structure has no apparent effect upon the surface, which is a broad plain deeply trenched by some of the larger streams. The erosion of this dome has exposed the Ordovician rocks which underlie the Blue Grass region. Outward from the apex of [illegible] the formations are successively younger, except where the

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regular order of the succession is broken by faults which have brought younger formations into abnormal contact with the older.

From the apex of the Jessamine dome the rocks dip gently outward in all directions, but the dip varies greatly in different directions, indicating that the dome is not symmetrical, and on the southern side the regularity of the dip is broken by faulting. From the apex of the dome along the crest of the uplift to Belmont, on Ohio River, the dip does not exceed 5 or 6 feet per mile; toward the north it is only 8 or 10 feet per mile; but the dips toward the east and west are much greater; the dips toward the northeast and northwest are about 25 to 30 feet, and toward the east and west nearly 50 feet per mile. The dips toward the south can not be satisfactorily determined because of the faulting, which has produced considerable displacement of the beds.

FAULTS.

The greater number of the faults of the Blue Grass region are strike faults; that is, the fault planes are parallel to the strike of the rocks. The most conspicuous fault is the Kentucky River fault, which extends from Clark County to Garrard County. It has a maximum throw of about 400 feet, which brings the Highbridge limestone into contact with the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale. Where this fault was observed, the movement appears to have been along a series of parallel planes, and at its eastern end near Ruckerville, as pointed out by Campbell,[a] the fault is represented by a slight fold. Another fault extends from Kentucky River northeastward near Ruckerville and into Bath County. The maximum movement along this fault plane is about 300 feet. Other faults are known to occur in Garrard and Madison counties, but in few of these is the displacement large.

Near Moberly there is a fault which runs parallel to the direction of dip—a dip fault.[a] The amount of displacement at this place is sufficient to bring the Ohio shale into contact with the Ordovician formations.

A strip of Eden shale extends from eastern Jessamine County northeastward across Fayette County. This strip of shale, which is from one-eighth to one-fourth mile wide, represents a place where two parallel faults have brought the Eden shale down into the area of Lexington limestone.[b] In northeastern Franklin County are two faults, which extend a considerable distance across the line into Scott County.[b] These two faults inclose a small fault block similar in origin to the one near Lexington. Other faults are known to occur in various parts of the region.

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[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

[b] Miller, A. M., The lead and zinc bearing rocks of central Kentucky: Bull. Kentucky Geol. Survey No. 2, 1905, p. 7.

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The geologic history of the Cincinnati arch has been long and complex, but a comprehensive discussion is beyond the scope of this paper. In general, it may be inferred that there were periods of partial emergence from beneath the sea, followed by more or less complete resubmergence. There is reason to believe that the faulting dates from the final emergence, which probably occurred during Carboniferous time. This question has been fully discussed by Miller in Bulletin 5 of the Kentucky Survey.

JOINTS AND BEDDING PLANES.

In the Blue Grass region there are two well-developed series of vertical joints at approximately right angles to each other. These joints have general north-south and east-west directions and are apparently very persistent. The spacing of the joints is somewhat irregular, and consequently it is difficult to state what interval there may be between joints at any given point.

Besides the joints, there are between the layers of rock numerous horizontal planes of separation known as "bedding planes." The spacing of the bedding planes varies from a fraction of an inch in the Eden shale to several feet in parts of the Highbridge limestone. The variation depends entirely on the thickness of the beds of rock, and consequently the number of bedding planes is greater in the shales than in the limestones.

In limestones and shales the joints and bedding planes have an important relation to the occurrence of underground water.

In rocks freshly exposed bedding planes and joints are usually but a small fraction of an inch in width; but near the surface the joints are wider, especially in the limestones, where they may be represented by caverns several feet wide. Within a few feet of the surface these openings are commonly filled with residual clay, and it is by the gradual removal of the limestone and the consequent enlargement of the cavern that the numerous sink holes of the region are formed. The enlargement, for obvious reasons, is most common along the lines where joints and bedding planes meet.

PHYSIOGRAPHY.

ALTITUDE OF THE SURFACE.

Altitudes within the Blue Grass region have an extreme range of about 1,100 feet, and the transition from one level to another is usually abrupt. The general altitude is between 800 and 1,000 feet above sea level. The higher points of the area, underlain by Ordovician rocks, rise to a nearly uniform altitude of 1,000 feet above sea level, while the lowest point, less than 400 feet above sea, is on Ohio

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River at the southwest corner of Oldham County. On the southern margin of the area the hills of Mississippian rocks rise to an altitude of nearly 1,500 feet above sea level.

LEXINGTON PENEPLAIN.

The general attitude of the surface on the area of Ordovician rocks is that of a broad plain, above which the hills of the southern part of the area rise abruptly and into which the large streams have cut deep, narrow gorges. The smaller streams have not been able to lower their channels fast enough to keep pace with the main streams, and hence they enter the main streams with a very steep gradient, in places broken by falls and rapids.

There is locally an apparent parallelism of the plain surface and the bedding of the Ordovician rocks, which might suggest that the uniform height of the plain was due to a layer of hard rock; but when traced any considerable distance the surface is seen to cut across rocks of different ages and varying degrees of hardness.

To a nearly level surface produced by subaerial denudation the name "peneplain" is given, and the peneplain formed by the erosion of the Ordovician rocks was called by Campbell[a] the Lexington peneplain.

CRETACEOUS PENEPLAIN.

On the southern margin of the area the hills rise to a fairly uniform height of 500 feet above the Lexington peneplain, and this has led to the belief that they are remnants of an earlier peneplain. No part of the surface of this older peneplain is visible to-day, but its existence is inferred from the uniformity in the height of the hills, which are capped by rocks of different lithological character. This peneplain was referred by Campbell[b] to the Cretaceous.

CAVERNS.

In limestone rocks of uniform character and similar jointing, the rate of cavern formation depends largely upon the topography. Where the surface is rolling a smaller percentage of the rainfall enters the ground than where it is flat. Thus, the Lexington peneplain, with its nearly level surface, must have furnished exceptionally favorable conditions for the formation of caverns and the development of underground drainage systems.

The flat-topped remnants of the peneplain in Woodford, Franklin, and Fayette counties have the largest underground systems of drainage and supply the most copious springs of the region. Unfortunately,

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.
[b] Op. cit.

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few of these caverns are accessible, and their size and the extent of their ramifications can be inferred only by the size of the springs and the number and size of the sink holes. On these flat-topped divides there is practically no surface drainage, and the topography is marked by a series of sink holes which receive a large part of the rainfall. It is probable that before the uplifting of the Lexington peneplain a large part of the surface was drained by underground streams, just as the divides are at the present time, and that the Neocene was the period when the formation of caverns was most rapid. Before the peneplain was uplifted the surface drainage was probably limited to the large streams and their principal tributaries. With the uplifting of the peneplain the surface drainage became more extensive and the areas of underground drainage were gradually restricted, but the formation of new caverns and the enlargement of the old has continued down to the present time.

SOILS.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOILS.

Since the time of the first settlement the Blue Grass region has been famous for its excellent soils, but considering the region as a whole the soils vary greatly in different localities, the finest types occurring in areas where the Lexington limestone forms the surface rock.

On the basis of origin the soil of the Blue Grass region may be said to include two types—residual and transported. The residual soils have resulted from the decomposition of the underlying rock and remain where they were formed. The transported soils are made up of disintegrated or decomposed rock particles and have been brought to their present position by the action of wind, water, or ice.

The sand dunes that occur in limited areas along the Ohio Valley and possibly the loess in the northern part of the region represent wind-transported soils. Some writers, however, would class the loess with water-transported soils.

The sands and gravels along the rivers form water-transported soils and are the result of mechanical disruption rather than chemical decomposition. In the valleys of Licking and Kentucky rivers these soils consist of assorted materials derived from the residual soils of the upland, but along Ohio River they were deposited by the flood waters which came from the melting of the continental ice sheet. As would be expected, the soils of the Ohio Valley are composed of the disintegrated fragments of various kinds of rock.

As the rocks of the region include limestones, sandstones, and shales, it might be expected that each kind of rock would yield a residual soil distinctive in type, but this is not always the case. Residual soils from limestones are largely due to solution, and this chemical action

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leaves behind it the insoluble sand and clay which was in the original rock. A soil derived from the calcareous shale may be much the same as one derived from a clayey limestone, and a calcareous sandstone may produce a soil which differs little from one derived from a siliceous limestone. The formation of the limestone soils requires the decomposition of a large amount of the original rock, for the sand and clay which make the soil usually form but a small percentage of the rock. The formation of soils from the shales or sandstones requires little besides the mechanical disintegration of the rock and very slight loss of volume results.

The statement made by many geologists that, as the residual soils are derived from the underlying rock, a geologic map is a good soil map, may or may not be true, depending entirely upon the units chosen as a basis for mapping If the formation mapped is in part siliceous limestone and in part argillaceous limestone, the soils from these two phases of the same formation may differ from each other more than they differ from the soils derived from sandstones and shales, respectively.

The classification of soils into types may also be based on texture, structure, color, content of organic matter, topography, and similarity of origin. The most important properties used in determining the soil type are the texture, which depends on the size of the soil particles, and the structure, which depends on the arrangement of these particles. Where a number of types are so closely related in source of material, method of formation, topographic position, and color that they grade one into another, they form a soil series. The soil series of the Ordovician limestones and interbedded shales has been called by the United States Bureau of Soils[a] the Hagerstown series.

In the Blue Grass region the types based on texture include stony clay, loam, and clay, and there are in addition phases of sandy loam and small areas of clay loam. The correlation of the Blue Grass soils derived from the Ordovician formations has not yet been completed, but they represent various textures which agree roughly with the textures of the different types in the Hagerstown series.

DISTRIBUTION OF SOILS.

The stony clay is found over considerable areas of the Eden shale and Maysville and Richmond formations. It consists of a clayey soil containing many fragments and occasional outcrops of limestone, and it occurs on the valley slopes in eroded areas of the formations mentioned. This soil produces good crops of corn, wheat, and tobacco, but its stony character and its marked tendency to erode adapts it better to grass and timber.

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[a] U. S. Dept. Agr., Bureau of Soils, Soil Survey Field Book, 1906, pp. 124-127.

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The sandy loam found in the Ohio Valley is formed from the alluvium of the terraces. In some parts of the Ohio Valley the sand of the terraces has been reworked by the winds and formed into ridges and dunes. The sandy loam also occurs on the sandstones of the Waverly shale and in places on the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale, this phase being derived from the disintegration of the sandstones. In the Ohio Valley this soil occupies areas of slight relief and is subjected to little erosion, but the residual soils of the sandstones commonly occur in deeply dissected areas and are subject to rapid erosion. Soil of this type is well adapted to truck farming, but is rather too light and sandy for general farming. The sandy loam of the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale is said to produce good crops where the land is not too hilly for successful cultivation.

The loam soils of the Blue Grass region occur on the Lexington and Highbridge limestones, and in limited areas on the more calcareous phases of the Maysville and Richmond formations. Small areas of loam are also found in the Ohio Valley. The upland loam is derived from the decomposition of the Ordovician limestones, and is the finest blue-grass soil. It has gently rolling topography and is adapted to a large variety of crops, the principal ones being blue grass, corn, wheat, tobacco, and hemp. This soil, especially where derived from the Lexington limestone, produces fine blue-grass pastures, and on it are located the breeding farms which have made Kentucky famous for fine horses. The small areas of loam in the Ohio Valley are well adapted to general farming, but they do not equal the upland areas in value.

The clay soils occupy large areas on the Maysville and Richmond formations, the Eden shale, the Winchester limestone, and Siluro-Devonian rocks, and small areas also occur in the Ohio Valley. These soils vary greatly in value, the best types being formed from the decomposition of the rocks of the Maysville, Richmond, and Winchester formations. The topography of the areas of clay soil varies greatly. The best soils are usually situated in the gently rolling areas. On the soils derived from the Winchester limestone corn, tobacco, hemp, and grass are the principal crops. The Maysville and Richmond soils produce excellent crops of corn, wheat, and tobacco, some of the hilly areas being noted for their fine, white, burley leaf. The soils derived from the Siluro-Devonian limestones are excellent, being well adapted to general farming and producing good crops of corn, wheat, and grass. The shales of the Siluro-Devonian formations, however, yield a very poor soil, which is used for general farming. The Eden shale usually occupies hilly areas, and its soils are among the poorest in the region. They are subject to rapid erosion and are best adapted to the production of

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grass and timber. In many parts of the area the attempts to farm these soils are being abandoned, and they are being converted into pastures.

The loesslike silt-loam soils are intermediate in texture between the loam and clay loam. They consist largely of silt, with clay and sand and smaller quantities of materials of a coarse grade. These soils occupy a strip along the uplands bordering Ohio River and are locally of considerable value for agricultural purposes, especially in northern Boone County. In most places the area occupied by these soils does not exceed 4 or 5 miles in width, and it is nearly everywhere underlain by glacial materials, although it reaches a short distance beyond the glacial boundary and laps over the area of residual soils. The material is ordinarily not more than 3 feet thick, although in some places it may be 5 or 6 feet thick.

TEXTURE.

The great value of the soils of the Blue Grass region has been attributed to the composition of the rocks from which they are derived, but there are many other factors that affect their value. The most important of these are the texture and the drainage. The texture of the soil depends upon the size of its particles, and this is determined by means of a mechanical analysis. The following table shows the size of the soil particles in the Hagerstown soil types as determined by such analyses. Although the samples for these analyses were not all taken from the Blue Grass region, they are believed to be fairly representative of the principal soil types which occur on the Ordovician rocks of the area. The presence in the soil of a small amount of carbonate of lime causes the aggregation of some of the soil particles, and thus their character is slightly modified, but the aggregation is probably not sufficient to make any great change in the physical composition of the soil.

Even when a liberal allowance is made for the increased size of the soil grains due to aggregation of the smaller particles, it is clear that the openings in such fine-grained material must be very small. These small openings prevent the soil from absorbing water rapidly, but give it a great capacity for retaining moisture and bringing it within the reach of the plant roots by capillary action. The small size of the pores also brings the ground water in contact with a large amount of soluble material and thus favors the solution of the phosphorus and other elements of plant food contained in the rocks.

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TABLE 2.—*Textures of the Hagerstown soil types.*

[Compiled from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Soils Field Book, 1906, pp. 124–127.]

	Fine gravel, 2–1 mm.[a]	Coarse sand, 1–0.5 mm.	Medium sand, 0.5–0.25 mm.	Fine sand, 0.25–0.1 mm.	Very fine sand, 0.1–0.05 mm.	Silt, 0.05–0.005 mm.	Clay, 0.005 mm or less.
Hagerstown stony loam:							
Soil	[b]2	4	3	6	11	52	22
Subsoil	2	3	2	4	7	38	44
Hagerstown stony clay:							
Soil	1	5	5	10	5	29	45
Subsoil	1	2	2	5	4	28	58
Hagerstown sandy loam:							
Soil	1	6	8	24	15	32	13
Subsoil	0	3	4	14	9	31	35
Hagerstown loam:							
Soil	5	3	3	7	10	46	26
Subsoil	2	3	2	6	8	38	39
Hagerstown clay loam:							
Soil	1	3	2	5	9	64	16
Subsoil	3	2	2	4	10	51	28
Hagerstown clay:							
Soil	1	2	2	9	8	41	38
Subsoil	0	1	1	6	5	29	58

[a] The figures at the top of the columns refer to the diameter of the soil particles.
[b] The figures in the various columns give the percentage of the grains of different diameters.

DRAINAGE.

Another factor which influences the value of the soils of the Blue Grass region is the excellent underdrainage provided by the crevices and channels in the rock. Indeed, if it were not for the removal of the excess of moisture through the underground drainage channels the fine-grained soils of the region would soon become so filled with water that plant growth would be greatly hindered.

CHEMICAL COMPOSITION.

The remarkable fertility of the Blue Grass region soils has generally been attributed to the compounds of phosphorus contained in considerable quantities in the Ordovician limestones. Although the value of the phosphates is unquestioned, other elements are recognized as important to soil fertility. Carbon, one of the principal elements which enter into the composition of plants, is supplied chiefly by carbonic acid from the air. Oxygen and hydrogen, the other elements which are abundant in plants, are supplied by water. In addition to the elements mentioned above, certain other substances, the most important including calcium, magnesium, sulphur, iron, nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium, must be obtained from the earth. Some of these are needed by plants in such small quantities that most soils contain an ample supply, but the last three are of such essential value that it may become necessary to add them to poor soils in order to produce large crops.

The following table of analyses shows that the elements which enter into plant composition are so abundant in most Kentucky soils that it is unnecessary to add fertilizers. The amount of nitrogen

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in the soils was not determined, but as it is largely supplied by organic matter, it is safe to conclude that where the analysis of Blue Grass soils shows a large amount of organic matter, the supply of nitrogen will usually be ample. In many soils this organic matter represents the accumulation of long ages preceding the advent of civilized man and the beginning of cultivation in this region. As the nitrogen is required to produce plants, careful treatment is necessary to restore nitrogen or organic matter to the soil.

The phosphorus and potash in most of the soils were supplied by the decomposition of the calcareous rocks of the region, and the amount of each was determined by the composition of the original rock. Thus, the decomposition of the phosphatic limestones has produced soils rich in phosphorus. The amounts of potash and phosphorus (stated as phosphoric acid in the tables) should be compared with the amounts in Hilgard's averages of 466 soils from the humid region of the United States, which are also shown in the table. The States represented in making up Hilgard's averages and the number of analyses of soils from each are as follows: North Carolina, 20; South Carolina, 11; Georgia, 40; Florida, 7; Alabama, 50; Mississippi, 97; Arkansas, 38; Kentucky, 185; and Louisiana, 18. Although Kentucky soils averaged outnumber those from any other State, the best Kentucky soils were not included, because it was desired to use only those soils which were not derived from limestone.

A careful comparison of the analyses of Kentucky soils and the averages given by Hilgard shows that Kentucky soils as a whole are richer than the average in those mineral elements which support plants. While the siliceous Waverly and siliceous mudstone (probably Eden shale) soils are low in the elements of plant food, the soils of the Lexington (Trenton) and Panola ("Corniferous") formations are very much richer than the average, and practically all of the analyses appear to represent soils which are better than the average given by Hilgard. In comparing the analyses of the soils of the Blue Grass region with each other the superiority of the Lexington (Trenton) soils is very evident. From an examination of the list of analyses used in making the averages, it appears probable that some analyses of Winchester and Maysville limestone soils were included in the averages of Lexington (Trenton) soils. This, since the Winchester and Maysville limestone soils are, in general, poorer than those of the Lexington (Trenton), probably means that the averages are lower than if the analyses were entirely from the Lexington soils. Notwithstanding this fact, the analyses show that the soils are very rich in plant food, and experience has shown that their natural productivity is high.

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TABLE 3.—*Chemical composition of Kentucky soils.*[a]

	Moisture.	Insoluble residue.	Organic and volatile matter.	Oxides of aluminum, iron, and manganese.	Calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$).	Magnesium oxide (MgO).	Phosphoric anhydride (P_2O_5).	Potash (K_2O), extracted by acids.
Average of 3 Ohio Valley alluvial soils	2.51	84.31	3.47	9.84	0.10	0.19	0.12	0.45
Average of 21 Quaternary (loess) soils	2.27	88.10	2.94	6.94	.37	.29	.12	.28
Average of 10 Waverly soils	.....	89.91	4.10	4.29	.14	.26	.10	.15
Average of 9 black slate soils	.....	80.13	5.93	10.59	.48	.52	.23	.18
Average of 15 "Corniferous" limestone soils	.....	83.52	5.07	9.06	.47	.63	.28	.34
Average of 16 Upper Silurian soils	.....	82.40	6.23	10.49	.32	.42	.19	.34
Average of 11 siliceous mudstone (middle Hudson) soils	.....	86.55	4.78	7.06	.10	.60	.16	.16
Average of 32 Trenton ("Blue") limestone soils	.....	73.38	6.21	11.20	.75	.64	.33	.40
Average of 6 Birdseye limestone soils	.....	85.80	4.45	6.51	.45	.38	.21	.18
Average of 234 Kentucky soils	.....	84.63	4.47	8.00	.36	.34	.18	.26
Average for humid region[b]	4.65	84.03	3.64	7.56	[b].20	.22	.11	.22

[a] Peter, Robert, The composition of the soils, limestones, clays, and marls of Kentucky: Kentucky Geol. Survey, 2d ser., pt. 13, vol. 5, 1885, p. 113.
[b] Hilgard, E. W., A report on the relation of soil to climate: Weather Bureau Bull. No. 3, 1892, p. 30. The figures given above are adapted from Hilgard's table; lime (presumably CaO) has been calculated to $CaCO_3$ for comparison with Peter's figures.

The Panola ("Corniferous") soil appears to be exceptionally good and to approach most nearly the high average of the Lexington limestone soils. The Highbridge (Birdseye) and Panola (Upper Silurian) soils have about the same general composition, although derived from rocks which widely differ in age, in appearance, and probably also in composition. It is interesting to note that the Ohio shale (black shale) soils, which have often been considered very poor, approach the average soils in composition. In one of the early reports of the Kentucky Geological Survey[a] Doctor Peter attributed the low productivity of this soil to the presence of too much water and suggested the use of lime to render the clay more porous, so that the excess of moisture could escape. The loess soils, which are fair when measured by the standards of the average soils, are considerably poorer than the Lexington (Trenton) soils.

SURFACE WATERS.

OHIO RIVER.

The Ohio makes a bend northward around the Blue Grass region, flowing north of west from Maysville to Cincinnati and approximately southwest from Cincinnati to the southern boundary of Old-

[a] Peter, Robert, Chemical analyses, A, pt. 2, Kentucky Geol. Survey, 1883, p. 101.

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ham County, and forming a partial boundary of 10 out of 30 counties. Only a small portion of the area, however, drains directly into the Ohio, most of the drainage passing first to one of the principal tributaries. Where the river borders this region its channel is a trench cut into the Ordovician rocks to a depth of 350 to 400 feet and varying in width from one-fourth mile to 1½ miles. The variation in width of the Ohio channel is the result of the formation of a single stream channel out of a number of segments of different streams and tributaries.

Between Maysville and Louisville,[a] a distance of 198 miles, the Ohio falls 54 feet, an average fall of 0.27 foot, or somewhat more than 3 inches, to the mile; but the rate of fall of the river is not uniform, varying from 0.2 foot to at least 5 feet to the mile in different parts of its course, increase in fall commonly occurring where the river crosses the old rock divides. The velocity of the stream is variable but is nowhere high.

Most of the small streams of the region are steep walled and have very high gradients, and the consequent rapid run-off causes correspondingly rapid fluctuations in the amount of water entering the main streams. Floods are very common on the Ohio, the gage records at Cincinnati showing that the river has passed the danger line (50-foot stage) just 23 times in the forty-six years previous to 1906. The highest stage during this period was 71.1 feet, in February, 1884, and the lowest was less than 2 feet. The extreme range is therefore nearly 70 feet, but the usual range is probably not much more than 25 feet. The highest floods, as a rule, occur in winter—in February or later—and are caused by the melting of the snow. A second rise, produced by the summer rains and ordinarily less than the one occurring in the winter, takes place in May or June. The autumn rains produce a third rise, which is comparatively small. The date of the autumn rise is uncertain, as it may come in November or not until late in December. The lowest river stages are, as a rule, reached in August or September, and they generally extend into October. As a result of recent work by the United States Government, the Ohio is now navigable along the borders of the Blue Grass region, even at very low water.

KENTUCKY RIVER.

Kentucky River rises in the mountainous part of the State and flows in a general northwesterly direction across the Blue Grass region, passing near the apex of the Jessamine dome. Where the river crosses the resistant Highbridge limestone its gorge is generally but little wider than the stream, and in many places the river flows between

[a] Gannett, H., Profiles of rivers in the United States: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 44, 1901, pp. 41-43.

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perpendicular walls of the limestone 300 feet or more in height. A characteristic view of this gorge is shown in Plate III, *A*. At various points above Frankfort the stream is bordered by rock terraces bearing narrow strips of alluvium, in most places composed of fine sand with a few layers of pebbles. Below Frankfort the alluvial deposits are more extensive, locally forming bands more than one-fourth mile wide. In areas where the Kentucky flows through rocks of the Maysville, Eden, and Winchester formations the slope of the channel is as a rule comparatively gentle. The contrast between the precipitous walls formed by the Highbridge limestone and the gentle slopes of the walls in the Maysville formation is beautifully shown on the northern edge of Madison County, where, by reason of the Kentucky River fault, the river passes abruptly from one of these formations to the other. On the one side of the fault the cliffs are so steep that it is impossible to ascend them; on the other side fields of corn extend down the gently sloping walls to the flood plain of the river. This change from one type of valley to the other is repeated several times as the river meanders back and forth across the fault line.

From Frankfort to the mouth of the river, a distance of 65 miles, the Kentucky falls 42 feet, or 7.2 inches to the mile; between Frankfort and Beattyville, a distance of 189 miles, the fall is 184 feet, or at the rate of nearly 1 foot to the mile. Throughout the Blue Grass region the gradient of this stream is comparatively low, but toward the mountains it increases rapidly.

The largest tributaries of the Kentucky in the Blue Grass region are Dix River and Eagle Creek, both of which have higher gradients than the main stream at the points of junction. The fall of Dix River from a point west of Lancaster to the mouth of the stream, a distance of 10 miles in a direct line, is not far from 300 feet. The minor branches of the Kentucky and its principal tributaries have very steep gradients, some of them descending 300 feet or more from the level of the upland to the main stream in a distance of 3 or 4 miles. As a result of the high gradients the streams show quickly the effects of rains, the water reaching maximum heights within a very short time after a storm. Floods are very common on the Kentucky, though the range in stage is probably not great as compared with that of the Ohio at Cincinnati.

LICKING RIVER.

Licking River heads at the edge of the mountains and flows in a direction slightly west of north into Ohio River opposite Cincinnati. This stream has cut through the Ordovician rocks to the Lexington limestone and the channel is in many places steep walled, but it is, as a rule, bordered by deposits of alluvium, especially along the lower course of the stream.

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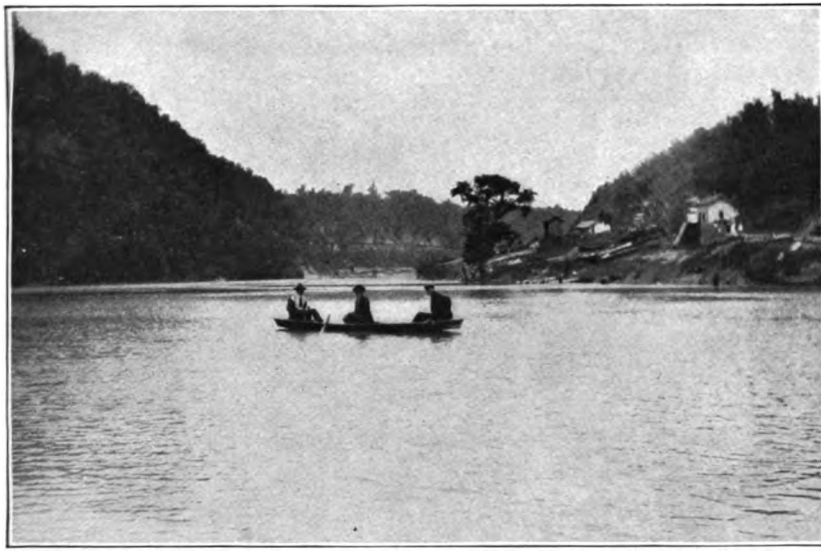

A. KENTUCKY RIVER GORGE SOUTH OF CAMP NELSON, KY.

B. AN OPEN SINK HOLE IN CLARK COUNTY, KY.

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The gradient of Licking Valley has not been determined, but it is apparently somewhat greater than that of Kentucky River. The tributaries of the Licking, like those of the other streams of the region, have very steep slopes.

MINOR STREAMS.

A small strip along the western edge of the Blue Grass region is drained by Salt River. The streams belonging to the Salt River system are all small, most of them flow only a part of the year, and all of them fluctuate rapidly with the amount of rainfall.

UNDERGROUND WATERS.

THE SOURCE.

The water that falls upon the land in the form of rain or snow either sinks into the earth or flows off over the surface. The part which sinks into the ground and is held by the rocks is known as ground water; that which flows off over the surface, together with the ground water returned to the surface streams, forms what is called the run-off. A part of both ground water and run-off is returned to the atmosphere and another part is consumed in chemical and organic work.

It is easy to understand that the shallow wells derive their supplies from rainfall, for the process of absorption by the more or less porous soils may be observed, and in many places in the Blue Grass region the storm waters may be seen entering the underground channels through sink holes. The connection between rainfall and the water supplied by deep wells is not, however, so apparent, and it is indeed possible that the saline waters furnished by some of the deep wells were taken into the rocks from the ocean during the process of deposition; but disregarding the origin of the very saline waters, it may be said that all of the water found in shallow wells, and much of that in deep wells, is derived directly from rainfall.

CONDITIONS OF OCCURRENCE.

THE WATER TABLE.

The water that sinks into the earth descends until it reaches a level where the underlying rocks are already completely saturated. This level is known as the water table, and its form and depth beneath the surface vary with the amount of rainfall, the relief of the surface, and the resistance which the rocks offer to the movement of the water. In arid regions of low relief the water table lies far beneath the surface, and its form is only slightly convex, the convexity being greatest in the materials that offer the most resistance to the passage of the water. The variation in convexity, which is

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due to the resistance offered by the rock to the movement of the ground water, is explained by the fact that a greater slope of the water surface is needed to overcome an increased resistance. In humid regions of considerable relief the water table reproduces with lesser magnitude the inequalities of the land surface. The greater the rainfall and resistance the nearer the approach of the water table to the surface.

Wherever the water table intercepts the surface, as along the valleys of the streams, seeps or springs are formed, and the lowering of the stream channels will depress the water table except where impervious materials, such as shales, are encountered. Where the porous material rests on dense materials, such as shale or clay, the depression of the water table ceases, and as the stream deepens its channel springs are left perched on the side of the valley. Veatch [a] has given the name "perched water tables" to the water tables that are left above the dense materials by the deepening of the stream

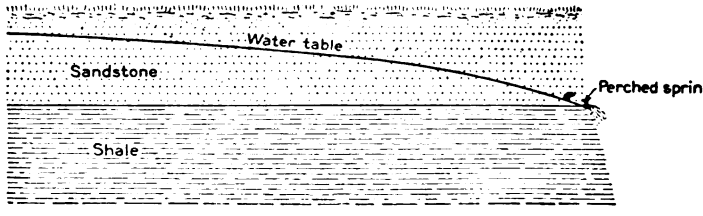

FIGURE 1.—A perched spring.

channels. It is proposed to extend the term "perched" to include springs formed where such water tables intersect or emerge at the surface. Perched springs are common at the contact of some of the sandstone beds of the Waverly shale with the underlying shale beds. They may also occur at certain points along the larger streams where beds of sand and gravel rest on clay.

In a large part of the Blue Grass region there is no general water table, but a water table exists in the sandstones of the Waverly shale, in alluvial materials along the larger streams, and in some partly saturated glacial sands and gravels on the uplands of northern Boone and Kenton counties. Locally, in various parts of the upland, a porous residual soil allows the formation of a ground-water level, but these areas are small and their supply of water is likely to fail during a very dry season.

The passages through which the ground waters move vary with the character of the rock, and in order to understand underground-water conditions it is necessary to consider the mode of occurrence

[a] Veatch, A. C., Underground water resources of Long Island, N. Y.: Prof. Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 44, 1906, pp. 57-58.

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of water in the different kinds of rocks and in rocks of different sorts arranged in alternate layers differing in thickness.

WATER IN SAND, GRAVEL, AND SANDSTONE.

In sand the water moves through the small spaces between the grains; hence the coarser or more porous the material the larger the passages and the greater the amount of water they will transmit.

Slichter [a] explains the effect of the size of the sand grains on the movement of water as follows:

If the particles of sand or gravel which make up the water-bearing medium are well rounded in form, the pores are somewhat triangular in cross section and the diameter of the individual pores is only one-fourth to one-seventh the diameter of the soil particles themselves. Thus if the individual grains of sand average 1 millimeter in diameter, the pores through which the water must pass will average only one-fourth to one-seventh of a millimeter in diameter. If to a mass of nearly uniform sand particles larger particles be added, the effect on the resistance to the flow of water will be one of two kinds, depending principally upon the ratio which the size of the particles added bears to the average size of grains in the original sand. If the particles added are only slightly larger than the original sand grains, the effect is to increase the capacity of the sand to transmit water, and the more particles of this kind that are added the greater will be the increase in the capacity of the sand to transmit water. If, however, large particles are added, the effect is the reverse. If particles seven to ten times the diameter of the original sand grains be added, each of the new particles tends to block the course of the water. Thus, for example, a large bowlder placed in a mass of fine sand will tend to block the passage of the water. As more and more of the large particles are added to a mass of uniform sand, the rate of flow of water through it will be decreased until the amount of the large particles equals about 30 per cent of the total mass. From this time on the adding of the large particles will increase the capacity of the whole to transmit water, until if a very large quantity of the large particles be added, so that the original mass of fine particles becomes relatively negligible, the capacity to transmit will approach that of the mass of the large particles alone. These facts have an important bearing upon the capacity of gravels to furnish water to wells or to transmit water in the underflow of a river. The presence of large particles is not necessary to be interpreted as indicating a high transmission capacity of the material, for this is indicated only when the large particles constitute a large fractional per cent of the total mass, as would be the case where the large particles equal 40 or 50 per cent of the whole.

Sandstone, having had some of the passages closed by the cementing material that binds the grains together, is less porous than sand composed of grains of the same size and shape. Sandstone therefore offers much greater resistance to the movement of water and transmits a relatively smaller amount than sand. This condition is often partly offset by the joint and bedding planes which may furnish channels for the passage of considerable water.

The motion of underground water is controlled by the factors that govern the motion of surface water—resistance and slope. As the

[a] Slichter, Charles S., Field measurement of the rate of movement of underground waters: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 140, 1895, pp. 10-11.

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water which moves in tiny threads between the grains of sand meets with a great deal of resistance it advances but a few feet a day; with the same gradient a surface stream, because of the comparatively slight resistance offered by the channel, will move several miles in the same length of time.

WATER IN LIMESTONE.

JOINTS AND BEDDING PLANES.

Limestone rocks are as a rule traversed by at least two sets of vertical joints which make approximately right angles with each other, and a third set of partings at right angles to these joints form the bedding planes of the rocks. The spacing of joints is ordinarily fairly uniform over considerable areas, and the interval between them is commonly to be measured in feet; but where the rocks have been deformed the joints are more numerous. The bedding planes exhibit very little uniformity of arrangement; an interval of a few inches may be followed by one of much greater magnitude.

Some limestones are sufficiently porous to absorb considerable quantities of water, but most of them are too dense to yield water for wells or springs. The water which comes from limestones is usually that which has found its way in along more or less enlarged joints or bedding planes, the enlargement being due to the solvent action of water. Obviously the places where water circulates most readily will, other things being equal, suffer most loss by solution, but differences in the solubility of the rock may offset the effect of rapid circulation. Doubtless the most common line of rapid solution is at the intersection of a prominent bedding plane and a more or less open joint.

FORMATION OF CAVERNS.

Not only is slight resistance to solution offered along certain lines, but in certain spots, owing to the presence of numerous open joints or to the solubility of the rock, very large chambers—"domes"—are formed. It is noticeable that "domes" are the points at which considerable water enters the underground channel. This water, coming fresh from the surface, is charged with a great amount of carbonic acid and it attacks the limestone about the point of entrance; as it flows farther and farther from the point of entrance it loses its power to dissolve the rock, because it has gradually picked up as large an amount of calcium carbonate as it can carry.

As the belt of rapid solution is restricted to the zone of active water circulation, the formation of caverns takes place largely above the level of the surface streams that receive the underground drainage, but this does not imply that there is no deep-seated solution or that

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active circulation may not extend slightly below the level of surface drainage. As solution progresses some parts of the walls and roof of the solution cavities collapse and sink holes are formed. If the channel beneath the point of collapse is large in proportion to the amount of material which falls, the sink is usually an open hole; but if the amount of fallen material is sufficient to clog the channel, the sink appears as a rounded depression that has no outlet. The fallen material may obstruct the opening so that the stream appears at the surface, or it may leave a passage which will allow the drainage to continue underground. In this event the gradual wearing of the stream may remove enough of the fallen material to form an open sink.

In the process of deepening its valley a stream lowers the base-level of its tributaries and thus affords them an opportunity to degrade their channels. When the tributaries flow in caverns they lower their channels along some joint plane, and the process goes forward most rapidly along some particular line in the same manner as during the

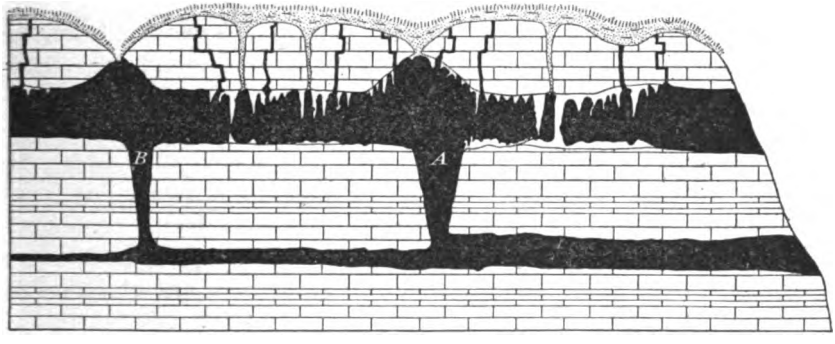

FIGURE 2.—Diagram of a cavern, showing different levels of the underground stream.

formation of the original cavern. At certain places where there is rapid downward movement from the old to the new channel more or less rounded openings develop. These openings provide a passage from the old to the new cavern and are usually called "pits." They often form beneath the domes, their location being determined in part by the presence of initial crevices and in part by the same condition that produced the dome, namely, the entrance of surface water bearing considerable free carbonic acid. (See A, B, fig. 2.) Doubtless the formation of caverns, and especially of pits and domes, is aided by the mechanical action of the water, especially where it contains sediment.

As long as the lower channel or the passages leading to it are comparatively small the old cavern retains a large part of the drainage. With the enlargement of the new cavities the old channel receives less and less of the original drainage, until it is entirely deprived of its original headwaters except during storms, and at last, when the new

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channels have become sufficiently enlarged, the old channel receives only the drainage of its local tributaries.

Migration from higher to lower levels may take place at successive periods, leaving a series of abandoned channels at different levels. The course of the underground stream at each successive stage probably deviates more or less from the course of the abandoned channel. Moreover, the course may not lie in a single channel, but passages may divide and reunite, forming a more or less extensive network of channels.

After a section of the underground stream has been abandoned the amount of water entering the old channel becomes less and less until it is chiefly confined to small seeps. At this stage much of the water is removed by evaporation, so that solution gives place to deposition, the principal deposit being calcium carbonate. At first deposition is rapid, because the crevices are large enough to supply all the water that can be evaporated; but gradually, as the openings become closed, the rate of deposition decreases. The deposits present a great variety of forms which add to the beauty of the caverns. The most common types, the stalactite and stalagmite, are familiar to all who have visited caverns. The stalactite begins as a thin film of calcium carbonate around the edge of a drop of water which evaporates on the roof of the cavern. Upon this film as a nucleus successive additions are made until the stalactite resembles a giant icicle suspended from the roof of the cavern. The accumulations of calcium carbonate which form where the water evaporates on the floor of the cavern are known as stalagmites. By the union of stalactites and stalagmites pillars are formed.

If a shale bed is encountered by the water in its downward progress a cavern is usually formed above it, and if the shale bed is some distance above the level of the surface stream which receives the drainage from the cavern the water may emerge from the cliff above the surface stream. The mechanical wear of the underground stream may remove the shale at some point, and thus permit the formation of another cavern nearer the level of the surface stream. If the shale bed is of considerable thickness the downward migration of the water may be permanently obstructed. The lowering of the channels of the surface streams usually takes place much more rapidly than the lowering of the underground streams. In consequence of this fact the underground streams may remain considerably above the level of the surface streams even where there are no beds of shale or other dense material to prevent downward migration.

SMALL WATER PASSAGES.

In all limestone regions there are water passages below the levels of the surface streams. In some places the openings are simply small

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pores in the limestone, but in the Blue Grass region they appear to be channels which closely resemble the caverns. Vein deposits are formed in these passages, and where exposed by erosion they present forms closely resembling those found in ordinary caverns. When penetrated by drilling the small water passages supply an abundance of water which is usually under considerable head, indicating that the channel is covered by impervious rock. The direction of movement in these channels probably conforms roughly to the dip of the rock, which in the Blue Grass region is away from the apex of the Jessamine dome. In this region these channels usually contain water that is more highly mineralized than that of the caverns.

WATER IN SHALE.

Shale, being composed largely of clay, contains practically no available water except that found in the joints and bedding planes. The number and character of the joints and bedding planes in shale vary in different formations and in different parts of the same formation. The water that enters the joints of the shale passes downward to the zone at which these openings practically cease and then moves laterally until it reaches the point of emergence. Near the surface the bedding planes may be sufficiently open to allow the passage of considerable water, but at moderate depths they are closed so that they transmit little or no water.

WATER IN INTERBEDDED LIMESTONE AND SHALE.

The amount and mode of occurrence of underground water in interbedded limestone and shale vary greatly with the relative amounts of the two kinds of rocks and the relations they bear to each other and to the surface. In a formation with a high percentage of limestone and thin scattered beds of shale the underground circulation is essentially the same as that in pure limestone; in a heavy deposit of shale containing thin beds of limestone underground water occurs essentially as in shales. For the sake of simplicity consideration will here be restricted to the occurrence of water in a series consisting of equal parts of shale and limestone arranged in alternating layers not exceeding 6 inches in thickness. Under such conditions the surface water may penetrate the rocks by passing along the joints which cross the beds, or it may follow along a joint in one or more beds, thus conforming to the dip of the rock. Probably in most such formations the actual movement combines these two methods. Water enters a joint near the surface and percolates downward until its course is obstructed by the gradual decrease in the width of the opening. If there were no means of escape laterally the movement would cease as soon as the crevice was filled; but in

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general a lateral movement along the joint allows a slow movement of the water. The lateral movement naturally follows the largest crevice, and this may lead to frequent change from one series of joints to the other, or the movement may continue along a single joint.

The movement of the water tends to enlarge the joints by mechanical wear, but as the circulation is usually slow the amount of enlargement is slight. The solvent power of the water tends to enlarge the joints along the beds of limestone, but as these beds are thin the height of the channel produced by solution is small.

The tendency of the shale to sink into any cavity which may be formed by solution restricts the width of the channel. The lenticular shape of many of the limestone beds presents another obstacle to the formation of underground passages by solution. As a result of all these factors the underground channels in interbedded shales and limestones are small.

Where the downward movement of the water is checked by a heavy bed of shale the water usually follows the dip of the shale bed, and under some conditions this movement may be away from the surface stream. An example of such movement was noted in northwestern Franklin County. Where the water follows the dip it is generally confined by the overlying shale and it continues its underground course until it reaches some point of escape at lower level.

The occurrence of springs above the level of the main streams was mentioned in connection with the formation of caverns, but it needs special mention here because such springs are very common in formations consisting of interbedded limestones and shales. The water which enters the joints passes downward until it reaches a layer of shale which contains no crevice, and follows this layer to the point at which it emerges at the surface. The most usual course for the water which supplies these springs is along the contact of a limestone layer with the underlying shale. These springs are most common along Ohio River, but they occur also along the other streams in the Blue Grass region. Their height above the streams varies from a few feet on some of the smaller streams to more than 300 feet along the Ohio and other large rivers. These springs have the same topographic position as the perched springs, but the mode of occurrence of the water is different.

SPECIAL CONDITIONS IN THE BLUE GRASS REGION.

WATER IN THE HIGHBRIDGE AND LEXINGTON LIMESTONES.

Water channels.—The Highbridge limestone forms the surface rock in but few localities in the Blue Grass region, and in those areas the topography is rugged and the soils are as a rule thin. The formation

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therefore contains but few large underground streams; most of the water channels in it are small. Along Kentucky River gorge, however, some of the channels form good-sized caverns, those best known being at Glasses Mill, Valley View, Highbridge, and Camp Nelson.

The Lexington limestone, except in the vicinity of large surface streams, occupies areas having gently rolling topography and a heavy deposit of porous soil. These conditions favor the occurrence of a large amount of underground water and the development of extensive systems of underground drainage, and the formation contains innumerable small channels and many large caverns. Indeed, most of the counties in which this limestone covers a large area can boast one or more caverns. The best known, and probably the largest of these, is the Russell cave, in Fayette County, which is reported to have been explored for nearly a mile. Several of the other caverns in the Lexington limestone have been explored shorter distances. Most of these caverns contain streams, many of which give rise to large springs. Few of the caverns are accessible except in dry weather, and none of them are highly ornamented by stalactites or

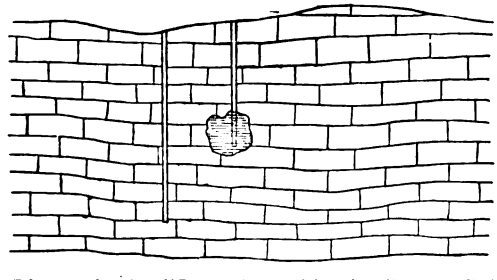

FIGURE 3.—Diagram showing difference in conditions in adjacent wells in limestone.

other deposits. The small underground channels that lie above the level of surface drainage also give rise to many springs. Below the level of the surface drainage the underground channels in the Lexington limestone are apparently small, but most of them seem to be full of water, while the channels nearer the surface are practically never entirely filled.

Wells.—The Highbridge limestone is penetrated by but few shallow wells and most of the deep wells sunk in it obtain mineral water. More than 95 per cent of the drilled wells of the upland obtain water from the Lexington limestone. The possibility of procuring water depends entirely on the chance of encountering one of the underground channels. In some localities few wells fail to procure an adequate supply; in others many failures are reported. The mode of occurrence of the mineralized waters makes it uncertain whether they will be encountered in any particular well, and in two wells located near together they may be found at very different depths (fig. 3).

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In general they may be looked for at less depth in the valleys than on the hills, but to this rule there are likely to be many exceptions. Wherever the Lexington and Highbridge limestones are covered by younger formations they yield only the highly mineralized waters. Ignorance of this fact has led to the sinking of deep wells in the areas of Maysville limestone with the hope of obtaining waters for domestic and industrial uses. Such wells are almost certain to be failures.

Quality of the water.—The water in the channels which are situated above the level of the surface drainage is practically always hard, but the hardness varies with the amount of rainfall, being greatest in dry weather and least after heavy rains. This condition is readily explainable, for in dry weather nearly all the water seeps in through the soil and the velocity of the underground stream is low, while during heavy rains much water enters through open sinks and the stream velocity is high. When the water enters from the soil, the subsoil, or the underlying rock it contains carbonic acid, which enables it to dissolve the material in the residual deposits and the limestone. The slow movement in the underground channel facilitates solution, but when the water enters through open sinks it contains less carbonic acid and the rapid movement of the flood waters does not favor solution. The substances most commonly found in the shallow waters are calcium and magnesium, but a number of other substances are present in smaller quantities.

The plane of separation between the shallow and deep waters coincides roughly with the levels of surface drainage, rising slightly above the level of the surface streams toward the divides and sinking slightly below the streams in the valleys. Where the surface streams flow in canyons the deep waters are often found above the levels of the surface streams. The deep waters in the Lexington and Highbridge limestones always contain considerably more mineral matter in solution than the shallow waters, and some of them appear to contain alkaline carbonates. (See analyses Nos. 24 and 25, p. 212.) These highly mineralized waters, which for the sake of brevity will be termed "mineral waters," occur in small areas of porous limestone or in channels that pass below the levels of the surface drainage. Rapid movement of the underground water is prevented by the situation of the channels and porous rock, and in many places the water is probably stationary; thus the water may remain in contact with the rock for a long time and dissolve out much mineral matter. Such waters are especially likely to be brackish or salt and to contain hydrogen sulphide or petroleum.

Practically all the channels are supplied with water from the surface, and when penetrated by wells the mineralized water may be replaced by the ordinary hard limestone water after the well has been pumped for a time. The length of time required to make this change

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varies from two or three weeks to a year or more, being influenced by the rate of pumping, the size of the channel, and the distance of the well from the point at which the water enters the ground. Rarely the character of the water does not change after long-continued pumping.

The numerous joints in the limestone probably furnish a natural means of escape for the mineral waters, but the amount escaping from a channel must as a rule be less than that taken out by an ordinary well. The almost universal connection of the channels with the surface, which is indicated by the entrance of surface water after pumping, shows that the water is probably derived from meteoric sources, the mineralization being due, as suggested, to the slow circulation of the water and the great length of time it remains in contact with the soluble materials of the limestone.

Within 10 or 15 miles of Kentucky River the shallow waters have been moving downward during the erosion of the gorge of that stream. This movement, which has been accomplished in the manner described under the occurrence of waters in limestone, has made it possible to procure some ordinary hard water below the level of the surface streams. Where the channel containing the mineral water has been severed by the deepening of the main stream and water from the surface allowed to enter, the result has been the same as when one of these channels has been penetrated by a well and the mineral water has been removed by pumping.

The general movement of the deep water appears to be in the direction of the dip of the rocks, and consequently the mineral waters of the region pass outward from the central area of the Highbridge and Lexington limestones. This outward movement carries the mineral waters into those areas where the Lexington and Highbridge limestones lie beneath the younger geologic formations.

WATER IN THE WINCHESTER LIMESTONE.

Water is found in the Winchester limestone under conditions resembling those in the Lexington limestone, except where the formation contains a high percentage of shale. Channels of sufficient size to be called caverns are not known in this formation, but where the limestone layers are exposed at the surface they yield, as a rule, considerable water.

The shallow waters of the Winchester are the ordinary hard waters of limestone rocks; the deep waters are saline and locally contain hydrogen sulphide.

WATER IN THE EDEN SHALE.

The outcrops of Eden shale occur in areas of rugged topography unfavorable for the absorption of large amounts of water. The formation presents three phases: (1) Nearly pure shale, (2) interbedded

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mineral matter and is called "soft," but the presence of lime in the sandstone may cause it to yield hard water.

WATER IN THE MAYSVILLE AND RICHMOND FORMATIONS.

The outcrops of the Maysville and Richmond formations have a gently rolling surface over considerable areas, and the topography thus favors the retention of residual soils and the absorption of large quantities of water. The soils are somewhat porous where they are derived from the limestone layers of the formations, but are dense where they result from the disintegration of the shales, and they therefore have lower storage capacity for water than the soils of most limestone areas.

Underground water occurs in the Maysville formation essentially as in interbedded limestones and shales. The more shaly parts of the formation present conditions much like those in shale; where the formation contains heavy beds of limestone which are near the surface, the underground water conditions resemble those in limestones. Thus, although certain parts of the Maysville contain but little more water than the Eden shale, there are other parts in which small caverns are found, and these parts supply considerable water. The presence of the caverns is usually indicated by a number of small sinks, which are especially noticeable near Burlington, in Boone County, although they may also be found in many other parts of the area. Locally, these heavy beds of limestones are capped by several feet of shale, and where this occurs the limestones receive very little water. Such conditions obtain in the vicinity of Richmond, Madison County.

Water conditions in the Richmond formation are much like those in the Maysville, but as at many places the Richmond carries much shale the amount of its underground water is locally small. The heavy beds of limestone in the upper part of the Richmond afford conditions favorable for the formation of caverns, and numerous sinks and springs indicate the presence of large underground channels. This phase of the Richmond formation is practically restricted to western Trimble and Oldham counties.

Drilled wells in the Maysville and Richmond formations have been remarkably successful in some localities, a well in the vicinity of Flemingsburg, Fleming County, affording a conspicuous example. In general, however, there is small chance of obtaining enough water for a farm from drilled wells in either of these formations. It is seldom advisable to sink a well more than 50 feet, and 100 feet should be the maximum, because in the interlaminated limestones and shales of the two formations the number and size of the openings decrease rapidly with increasing depth. Almost everywhere the water that

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comes from them from a depth more than a few feet below the bottoms of the neighboring creeks is likely to contain both salt and sulphur in moderate quantities.

Dug wells in the Maysville and Richmond formations usually procure sufficient water for a farm at depths ranging from 10 to 35 feet, the most common depths being 20 to 35 feet. Most of these wells are affected by the weather and many of them fail during a protracted drought.

Springs are numerous in both formations, but few of them are large. Many of the springs are perennial, and during a dry season maintain sufficient volume to furnish water for several families.

Water obtained from these formations above the level of the surface drainage is hard; that obtained below the level of the surface drainage is, as a rule, mineralized. Where the water emerges in some surface stream near the point where it enters the ground the underground circulation is so short that only a moderate quantity of mineral matter is dissolved. Where the dip of the rocks carries the water below the level of the neighboring surface stream the prolonged underground course allows the water to become highly charged with mineral matter, and if the rocks contain much organic matter such water will usually contain hydrogen sulphide, produced by the decomposition of the organic matter. The presence of hydrogen sulphide and large percentages of mineral matter in the water of wells that draw their supplies from depths below the levels of the surface drainage is thus explained. After water has been drawn from such wells for a considerable time the underground circulation may become more rapid and the amount of mineral matter and hydrogen sulphide may be lessened. The same result is brought about by the gradual removal of the amount of available mineral and organic matter along the underground channel. These highly mineralized waters have sometimes been regarded as residual sea-water, but this theory is probably incorrect. In some places the Richmond formation contains magnesian limestones, and the water obtained from this phase of the rock contains considerably more magnesia than is usually present in hard waters.

WATER IN THE PANOLA FORMATION.

The limestones and shales of the Panola formation, as a rule, occupy areas of low relief, but in some localities they have been rather deeply dissected. The soils derived from the limestones are generally sufficiently porous to absorb considerable water, but those from the shales are commonly quite dense. Both topography and soils favor the occurrence of considerable underground water.

The limestones of the Panola are the principal water-bearing rocks. In some places, as in Fleming County, these rocks consist in part of

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single beds of limestone alternating with beds of shale; but in other places, as in Clark, Madison, Oldham, and Trimble counties, the beds of limestone have an aggregate thickness of several feet. Even where the limestone beds are thin they generally yield considerable water. Where the limestone beds are thick the movement of the underground water is essentially the same as in the Lexington and Highbridge limestones. A few caverns have been reported in this formation, but they do not appear to be very numerous. One of the most interesting of these caverns is on Jeptha Knob, in Oldham County.

The shales of the Panola are locally traversed by numerous small joints that permit the entrance of considerable water; hence many shallow wells are successful and small springs are numerous.

Wells dug in the limestones of the Panola usually yield ample supplies of water for household or farm use. Drilled wells have also been successful, especially on the west side of the Jessamine dome in Oldham and Jefferson counties. The water is almost invariably encountered in the crevices of the limestone at its junction with the underlying shale.

The limestones of the Panola are highly magnesian, and the water which they contain is charged with magnesium in addition to the calcium and other salts that all limestone waters carry. Sulphur and salt are entirely lacking in these limestone waters, but zinc has been noted. The character of the water is shown by the analyses of the Anita Spring water and the water of the Royal Magnesian Spring.

The water from the shales of the Panola usually contains a large amount of mineral matter, especially Epsom salts and other sulphates. These waters are not extensively used within the area covered by this report, though there is a resort at Kiddville where an Epsom well obtains its water from this formation. At Crab Orchard, outside the area, the Epsom water has been used in the manufacture of Epsom salts, which have had an extensive sale. The mineral matter in these waters is believed to have been derived in part from the Ohio shale which lies above the limestones.

WATER IN THE OHIO SHALE.

In the Ohio shale water occurs chiefly in the joints, which are especially numerous near the surface and usually afford openings a fraction of an inch wide. The width of the joints diminishes downward, but they have been known to supply water at a depth slightly exceeding 50 feet. The bedding planes probably supply no water, except near the surface.

The soil of the Ohio shale is in most places sufficiently porous to allow considerable water to enter the underlying rock. Where the

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formation occupies flat or moderately rolling areas it generally receives much of the water which is absorbed by the soil; where the surface is steep very little water enters the rock. On the mountain sides, however, where the sandstones of the Waverly shale overlie the Ohio, some of the water that comes from these sandstones enters the joints of the shale in its passage down the slope.

Wells in the Ohio shale are uniformly successful, the supplies of water being obtained at depths less than 50 feet. Where the formation is exposed many drilled wells have obtained sufficient water for the use of one or more families. Springs are numerous and some of them have been utilized as health resorts.

The water derived from the Ohio shale is highly mineralized, sulphur, alum, and chalybeate waters being especially characteristic types. Springs of Epsom and salt waters also occur.

WATER IN THE WAVERLY SHALE.

The shaly layers of the Waverly shale, which occupy the almost perpendicular sides of the mountains, furnish practically no water; but numerous springs of soft water that occur on the mountain side derive their supplies from the sandstone layers and shallow wells in the areas where the sandstones are exposed at the surface yield an abundance of water, although the rock is, as a rule, rather firmly cemented.

WATER IN THE ALLUVIUM.

Water occurs in the alluvium as in sands and gravels. The deposit is in most places sufficiently coarse to yield an abundance of water, but at one locality in northern Boone County the water-bearing sands are so fine that it is practically impossible to keep them from clogging the pumps.

The water in the alluvium is derived in part directly from rainfall and in part from springs and surface streams, although the rainfall probably furnishes the greater part. Each surface stream which emerges from the upland contributes to the water supply of the alluvium, unless its channel is lined with clay, which prevents the escape of the water, and some of the smaller streams lose a large part of their water in this way. Springs which emerge from the upland formations, either above or below the surface of the alluvium, also contribute to its water supply.

Under normal conditions the water table (see p. 39) of the alluvium slopes toward the main stream, and the water moves toward the stream to emerge in springs and in seeps along the channel. When the river rises the slope of the water table near its channel may be reversed, and the movement of the water may be from the river into the alluvium. This reversal of the normal movement is only temporary,

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as the supply of water which the alluvium receives from the rainfall and from other sources soon raises the water table and reestablishes its normal slope toward the river. When a well near the river bank is pumped rapidly the slope of the water surface between the well and the river may be reversed so that the well draws some water from the river. This reversal of the slope of the water surface is due to the formation of a cone-shaped depression of the water table in the vicinity of the well. After the pumping ceases the water table rises and the ground water resumes its normal movement toward the river. The effect of the entrance of river water into the gravel along Ohio River has been noted at several points. Its presence may usually be detected in analyses by the small amount of mineral matter obtained in water near the river. The difference is shown by the analyses of the water from the wells of the Augusta steam laundry and the Augusta electric-light plant (p. 212). The steam laundry well is within about 10 rods of the river, and the well of the electric-light plant is several blocks distant. The difference is also illustrated by the behavior of the water in steam boilers. The water from the laundry well causes no scale, but the water from the well of the electric-light plant produces a large amount of scale, even after it has been passed through a heater which removes much of the mineral matter.

The quality of water in the alluvium varies greatly in different localities, and it may be expected to vary at any point as the conditions which govern the source of supply at that point change. The water that falls upon the alluvium percolates downward through the sand and gravel, dissolving lime and other materials which make it slightly hard. Water that is derived from the upland streams enters the gravel bearing whatever materials it has in solution. In the Blue Grass region the streams flow over formations that contain much limestone, and the water naturally carries a considerable amount of material dissolved from these calcareous rocks. The springs emerging from the formations through which the river valley is excavated contribute water carrying mineral matter that has been dissolved from these formations, and springs from different formations or even from different parts of the same formation may yield water differing greatly in quality. An example of the effect of spring water on the composition of the ground water of the alluvium was noted at South Ripley. At this locality Ohio River has cut nearly to the base of the Eden shale, and this formation or the underlying Winchester limestone probably supplies the salt water which gives the ground water in the alluvium at South Ripley a brackish taste.

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AMOUNT OF UNDERGROUND WATER.

MODIFYING FACTORS.

RAINFALL.

The amount of underground water is influenced by several important factors, among which may be mentioned the quantity and character of the rainfall, the nature of the topography, the presence or absence of vegetation, and the character, condition, and thickness of the residual soil mantle.

Adequate rainfall is essential to abundance of ground water, but even when the rainfall is heavy the amount of water that enters the ground is greatly influenced by the rate of precipitation. Obviously, the conditions most favorable for absorption of water by the ground are slow precipitation and high temperature. The slow precipitation permits the water to enter the ground, and the high temperature facilitates its downward percolation. With decrease in temperature or increase in the rate of precipitation the percentage of rainfall that is absorbed is decreased and the amount of run-off is increased. If the precipitation takes the form of snow and falls upon a warm earth, its gradual melting may afford especially favorable conditions for the absorption of water; when the snow melts rapidly the amount of water that is absorbed is usually small.

The annual rainfall in the Blue Grass region varies from 40 to 50 inches, the precipitation being greatest in the southwestern part of the region and diminishing gradually toward the northeast corner of the State. A map prepared by Alfred J. Henry[a] shows an annual precipitation of 45 to 50 inches in the southern part of the area and of 40 to 45 inches in the northern part. The line on the map (fig. 4) separating these two belts of unequal rainfall crosses the counties bordering Ohio River in a northeastward direction until it reaches the latitude of Frankfort, and then bears eastward, passing north of Frankfort, to the east side of Licking River, where it turns to the southeast and extends beyond the southern boundary of the region. Lexington and Cincinnati, with mean annual rainfall of 44.38 and 39.87 inches, respectively, typify the conditions prevalent throughout the greater part of these two divisions. These figures represent the average rainfall as deduced from observations carried on over a number of years, but the actual precipitation for a single year may vary widely from the mean. An inspection of the following table (No. 4) shows that in the ten years from 1897 to 1906 the departure from the normal has exceeded 10 inches five times at Lexington and three times at Cincinnati. The maximum departure from the normal for any part of the area was 20.62 inches at Cincinnati in 1901. The

[a] Chart 12, U. S. Weather Bureau.

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maximum departure at Lexington was 16.66 inches in 1904. Both of these departures were below the normal and mark periods of drought in their respective sections. The rainfall for the two years of drought

FIGURE 4.—Map showing average rainfall in eastern part of United States, in inches.

and for the two intervening years is given in Table 5. These droughts were not the result of the annual variation from the normal, but were caused by the continuation of a period of marked deficiency in

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rainfall through three or four consecutive months. The drought of 1901, according to the figures given in Table 5, was most severe locally, but did not cover so wide an area as that of 1904. It was confined to a narrow strip along Ohio River and lasted from August to November. The drought of 1904 extended over much of the upland and was most marked in the last part of November and early part of December. It began as early as August in some parts of the area, and October was the driest month ever recorded in the region.

TABLE 4.—*Annual precipitation, in inches, and departure from the normal for four stations of the United States Weather Bureau, 1896–1906.*

Year.	Lexington.		Cincinnati.		Frankfort.		Shelbyville.	
	Rainfall.	Departure from normal.	Rainfall.	Departure from normal.	Rainfall.	Departure from normal.	Rainfall.	Departure from normal.
1896	43.29	− 1.67	34.48	.....	46.73	.....	46.54	− 0.1[illegible]
1897	49.19	+ 2.30	43.89	+ 4.00	42.88	− 2.40	48.58	+ 3.3[illegible]
1898	59.41	+14.67	38.97	− 0.90	.....	.....	52.73	+ 7.[illegible]4
1899	40.24	− 2.76	34.69	− 4.94	.....	.....	41.14	− 3.7[illegible]
1900	33.67	−10.58	27.79	−11.20	36.38	− 7.01	48.23	+ 2.1[illegible]
1901	30.31	−13.29	17.99	−20.62	.....	.....	34.78	−10.[illegible]
1902	36.10	− 8.28	37.30	− 2.57	48.01	+ 1.38	38.35	− 6.1[illegible]
1903	30.70	−13.68	34.69	− 5.15	38.42	− 3.71	38.46	− 5.[illegible]4
1904	28.72	−16.66	29.54	−10.33	32.55	−10.65	32.18	−11.54
1905	44.17	− 0.21	38.69	− 1.18	46.91	+ 5.84	.....	.....
1906	42.59	− 1.79	40.83	+ 0.96	52.39	+11.32	51.64	+ 7.35

TABLE 5.—*Monthly precipitation, in inches, and departure from the normal at Lexington and Cincinnati, from 1901 to 1905.*

[Compiled from the reports of the U. S. Weather Bureau.]

Year.	Station.	January.		February.		March.		April.	
		Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.
1901	Cincinnati	0.87	−2.15	1.35	−2.17	2.01	−1.60	1.93	−0.95
	Lexington	1.49	−2.16	0.62	−2.73	2.23	−2.78	4.52	+1.14
1902	Cincinnati	2.10	−1.36	0.38	−3.31	1.47	−1.83	2.87	−0.33
	Lexington	4.77	+0.95	0.90	−2.80	2.92	−1.98	1.27	−2.45
1903	Cincinnati	2.05	−1.41	5.76	+2.09	4.97	+1.67	3.49	+0.29
	Lexington	1.68	−2.14	6.16	+2.46	3.24	−1.66	3.29	−0.43
1904	Cincinnati	2.66	−0.80	2.66	−1.03	8.17	+4.87	2.28	−0.92
	Lexington	1.92	−2.90	2.38	−1.32	4.75	−0.15	3.08	−0.64
1905	Cincinnati	1.80	−1.66	1.76	−1.93	2.46	−0.84	3.14	−0.0[illegible]
	Lexington	2.04	−1.78	1.13	−2.57	5.87	+0.97	2.87	−0.85

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TABLE 5.—*Monthly precipitation, in inches, and departure from the normal at Lexington and Cincinnati, from 1901 to 1905*—Continued.

Year.	Station.	May.		June.		July.		August.	
		Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.
1901	Cincinnati	1.62	−1.70	2.27	−1.69	1.44	−2.05	0.88	−2.66
	Lexington	2.66	−1.15	3.70	−0.50	2.61	−1.57	3.74	−0.35
1902	Cincinnati	5.54	+2.13	5.25	+0.85	3.47	+0.09	0.65	−3.07
	Lexington	2.43	−1.06	5.19	+0.94	2.33	−2.77	1.89	−1.63
1903	Cincinnati	3.83	+0.42	3.27	−1.13	2.31	−1.07	2.75	−0.97
	Lexington	1.75	−1.74	2.71	−1.54	2.62	−2.48	1.49	−2.03
1904	Cincinnati	3.70	+0.29	2.60	−1.80	0.80	−2.58	0.41	−3.31
	Lexington	2.60	−0.89	2.51	−1.74	3.13	−1.97	2.44	−1.08
1905	Cincinnati	9.52	+6.11	2.36	−2.04	1.04	−2.34	4.66	+0.94
	Lexington	5.54	+2.05	3.31	−0.94	4.94	−0.16	4.11	+0.59

Year.	Station.	September.		October.		November.		December.		Total.	
		Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.	Precipitation.	Departure from normal.
1901	Cincinnati	0.92	−1.43	0.59	−1.68	0.74	−2.59	3.37	+0.41	17.99	−20.62
	Lexington	2.18	−0.41	1.33	−0.78	1.73	−1.05	3.50	+0.40	30.31	−13.29
1902	Cincinnati	4.26	+1.84	2.77	+0.33	3.29	−0.01	5.25	+2.10	37.30	− 2.57
	Lexington	2.60	+0.06	2.11	−0.11	3.09	−0.63	6.60	+3.20	36.10	− 8.28
1903	Cincinnati	1.78	−0.64	1.31	−1.13	1.45	−1.85	1.72	−1.43	34.69	− 5.15
	Lexington	0.81	−1.73	2.12	−0.10	2.84	−0.88	1.99	−1.41	30.70	−13.68
1904	Cincinnati	1.28	−1.14	0.89	−1.55	0.34	−2.96	3.75	+0.60	29.54	−10.33
	Lexington	1.71	−0.83	0.57	−1.68	0.53	−3.19	3.10	−0.30	28.72	−16.66
1905	Cincinnati	1.54	−0.88	4.85	+2.41	2.75	−0.55	2.81	−0.34	38.69	− 1.18
	Lexington	3.20	+0.66	3.45	+1.23	3.58	−0.14	4.13	+0.73	44.17	− 0.21

Deficient precipitation lessens the quantity of water supplied by springs and shallow wells, but does not affect the supplies from deep wells. The effect of low rainfall is especially noticeable in the autumn months, when the precipitation is normally small. The time required for deficiency of rainfall to affect the amount of ground water varies with the quantity of water in the ground at the beginning of the drought, and the effect in different parts of the area varies with the nature of the materials in which the water is stored. In general, it may be said that a drought of two months usually causes a marked diminution in the amount of ground water; and if it continues for three or four months, the water supplies of the area are noticeably depleted.

When the amount of precipitation is much above the normal, the soil becomes saturated and the excess runs off over the surface. As the surface of the Blue Grass region is rolling, this excess moisture escapes readily.

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During the spring and summer months much of the rainfall comes in the form of thunder showers. As a rule, these add comparatively little to the underground water supply, because the rapid precipitation favors run-off rather than absorption. In some parts of the area, however, open sinks abound, and in these localities a considerable part of the water falling during thunderstorms may enter the underground channels directly. The frequency of thunderstorms in the Blue Grass region is shown by the fact that in the ten years from 1895 to 1904 the Lexington station reported an average of 21 thundershowers for the three months from June 1 to August 31. Such storms also occur during other parts of the year, but less frequently.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Many investigators have assumed that, aside from its effect on the form of the water table, topography bears no relation to underground-water problems; but in reality the influence of topography on the amount of underground water is so marked that it is often possible to determine with considerable accuracy, from a study of the character of the surface of an area only, whether wells in a given locality are likely to have large or small yields.

A much greater amount of water is absorbed where the surface is level than where it is uneven, the level surface favoring absorption because the water flows off more slowly, and thus remains for a longer time in contact with the soil; a rolling surface favors rapid run-off. The influence of sink-hole topography on the quantity of ground water is especially noticeable, for while this topography is in itself an indication of the presence of underground streams, it also favors the absorption of large amounts of water.

The character of the topography also affects the thickness of the residual materials, for in many places on the rolling areas much of the decomposed rock has been removed by erosion, and wherever the thickness of the soil is reduced its storage capacity is lessened.

SOILS.

The permeability of soil depends largely upon its texture, a coarse-grained soil being, as a rule, much more permeable than a fine-grained. The capacity of the soil to retain moisture also depends upon its texture, the storage capacity of the finer soils being much larger than that of the coarser. The water which enters coarse sand passes through it rapidly, because of the large spaces between the grains; but that which is absorbed by clay is held by the capillary attraction of the small passages.

Although a coarse sand will readily absorb a large amount of water, it will retain only about 15 per cent of its volume; while a clay, which absorbs water more slowly, will retain more than 40 per cent.

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By referring to Table 3 (p. 36) it will be seen that the soils of the Blue Grass region are very fine grained and hence have a large capacity for storing moisture. Determinations made by King[a] of the per cent of pore space and the approximate effective diameter of soil particles are given in the following table:

TABLE 6.—*Approximate effective diameter of soil particles.*

Type of soil.	Locality.	Depth of material.	Percentage of pore space.	Approximate effective diameter of soil grains.
				Millimeter.
Prairie loam	Oasis, Wis	Surface	38.83	0.03035
Do	do	Second-foot	34.64	.04777
Clayey loam	Drummond, Wis	Surface	44.87	.02206
Do	do	Second-foot	44.15	.02197
Heavy clay	Ashland, Wis	Surface	45.32	.01402
Do	do	6-18 inches	44.15	.01111
Sandy soil	Minong, Wis	Surface	34.49	.02619
Do	do	6-12 inches	29.96	.0523

These soils are not precisely the same as those of the Blue Grass region, but the table is valuable because it shows the porosity of loam, clay, and sandy soils. Actual measurements of the amount of water in the soils at Lexington and Greendale, Ky., were made by the United States Bureau of Soils.[b] These measurements include the surface soil to a depth of 12 inches and were made daily from May 18 to July 31, 1895. The maximum amount of water in the soils was found to be slightly more than 21 per cent of the total weight. The general range was about 13 to 21 per cent, and the lower limit was about 10 per cent. As these measurements were made at a time when frequent rains insured saturation of the soil, the maximum probably represents nearly the full water capacity of the soil.

The percentage by weight is only about one-half as great as the percentage by volume; hence, if reduced to percentage by volume, the maximum amount of moisture would be about 42 per cent and the range about 20 per cent. An examination of the table shows that the percentage of pore space diminishes in the subsurface materials, so that the average porosity of the residual materials at Lexington and Greendale is probably somewhat less than would be indicated by the table. The amount of reduction might bring the maximum as low as 35 to 40 per cent.

No measurements of the amount of water in other soils have been made, but assuming a porosity approximately the same as that for the soil types given in the table above, the clay would have a pore space of about 40 to 45 per cent of its volume and the sandy

[a] King, F. H., Nineteenth Ann. Rept. U. S. Geol. Survey, pt. 2, 1897-98, pp. 213-214.
[b] Soils and soil moisture: U. S. Dept. Agr., Bulls. 1, 2, and 3, May, June, and July, 1895.

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loam of about 30 to 35 per cent of its volume. As the silt loam has more silt and less clay than loam, its amount of pore space would probably be somewhat smaller than was found in the soils at Lexington and Greendale. The silt loam is of small extent and is underlain by gravelly loam or fine sand. Its porosity is probably slightly greater than that of the sandy loam.

From the above estimates of porosity it appears that even if the amount of water absorbed equaled only three-fourths of the total pore space, the residual deposits of the Blue Grass region would still hold a high percentage of moisture. The fact has an important bearing on the available water supply of the region, for the Ordovician limestones are too dense to yield water, and the water supplied to the shallow wells and springs during dry weather must be derived from the residual materials.

The residual materials in the Blue Grass region range in thickness from a few inches up to about 30 feet, the most common thickness being 3 to 5 feet and the average probably less than 6 feet. From this mantle of decomposed rock the transition to the solid rock below is rather abrupt. The importance of the residual material to the water supply does not depend upon its yielding water directly to wells, for this it does in but few places. Its real function is to store the rainfall and deliver it gradually to the underground channels. If the rocks of the Blue Grass region were laid bare the water from each rainfall would either enter the cracks at once or flow off over the surface at a rate determined by the slope, and in a comparatively short time all the water would have escaped, leaving the surface dry except where small pools were formed in depressions. Under such conditions springs would flow only a short time after each rain, because the rocks of the Ordovician formations have little or no storage capacity for moisture. The capacity of the residual soil to absorb moisture has already been mentioned. The small thickness of the residual mantle, however, prevents the storage of large quantities of water. As the porosity and thickness of the soil vary with the character of the rock from which it is derived, the water capacity of the soils of the different formations or of different parts of the same formation varies widely.

AMOUNT OF WATER IN THE EARTH'S CRUST.

Several attempts have been made to estimate the total amount of water in the earth's crust, but none of the results are universally accepted. To reach a conclusion it is necessary to estimate the average thickness of the various kinds of rock which compose the outer 6 miles of the earth and to compute the average amount of water contained in each kind of rock. The results obtained can not

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be applied to any particular region, for they represent only the average condition for the whole earth, and as the results are not locally applicable their practical value is small.

The discussion has had, however, a practical bearing, in that it has called attention to the erroneous belief that an abundance of water can be obtained anywhere by drilling deep enough. In many places it has been found that the amount of water diminishes with increase of depth, and probably in nearly all places the amount of water below the first 2,000 or 3,000 feet is very small.

The quantitative estimates of the amount of water in the earth's crust vary from one-hundredth to one-half of the volume of the ocean. The smallest of these estimates was made by Fuller.[a] This estimate may be stated in another way by saying that the one-hundredth of the volume of the ocean means sufficient water to cover the entire surface of the earth to a depth of nearly 100 feet.

ARTESIAN WATER.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

The term "artesian" is derived from the name of a town in France, Artois, where the first important flowing wells were sunk. In this country the term has been used in so many different ways that it is often impossible to say just what particular kind of a well is meant. Some authors use artesian to designate only wells that flow; others apply it to any well in which the water is under hydrostatic pressure, so that it will rise above the level at which it is encountered; still others use the term to designate any deep well.

The desirability of securing uniformity of usage for the term "artesian" led Fuller to attempt to give it a precise meaning, and he proposed the following definitions:[b]

The artesian principle (which may be considered as identical with what is often known as the hydrostatic principle) is the principle in virtue of which water confined in the materials of the earth's crust tends to rise to the level of the water surface at the highest point from which pressure is transmitted. Gas as an agent in causing the water to rise is expressly excluded from the definition.

Artesian pressure is the pressure exhibited by water confined in the earth's crust at a level lower than its static head.

Artesian water is that portion of the underground water which is under artesian pressure and will rise if encountered by a well or other passage affording an outlet.

[a] Fuller, M. L., Total amount of free water in the earth's crust: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 160, 1906, pp. 59–72.

[b] Fuller, M. L., The significance of the term "artesian:" Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No 160, 1906, pp. 14–15.

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An artesian system is any combination of geologic structures—such as basins, planes, joints, faults—in which waters are confined under artesian pressure.

An artesian basin is a basin of porous bedded rock in which, as a result of synclinal structure, the water is confined under artesian pressure.

An artesian slope is a monoclinal slope of bedded rocks in which water is confined beneath relatively impervious covers owing to the obstruction of its downward passage by the pinching out of the porous beds, by their change from a pervious to an impervious character, by internal friction, or by dikes or other obstructions.

An artesian area is an area underlain by water under artesian pressure.

An artesian well is any well in which the water, when encountered, rises under artesian pressure.

The conditions commonly producing artesian wells are:

1. A porous bed or an open plane or channel to permit the entrance and passage of water.
2. An impervious cap to prevent the upward escape of the water.
3. An inclination of the water-bearing bed or passage.
4. A suitable exposure of the water-bearing beds or passages above the level of the surface at the well to permit the entrance of water.
5. An adequate rainfall to furnish the water.
6. An absence of openings which will permit the ready escape of water at a level below the well.

It was formerly believed that an impervious bed below the water-bearing horizon was an essential condition, but such a bed is not everywhere necessary because the rocks below may be saturated with water. Under certain conditions, also, the impervious bed above the water horizon may be dispensed with, for the interlocking grains in the layer of sands above the water may offer more resistance to its upward movement than is offered by the well. Even a porous bed may not be necessary to furnish artesian conditions, for artesian wells may be obtained where the water is in joints, solution channels, bedding planes, or other open passages. The inclination of the water-bearing beds may not everywhere be necessary, for the pressure may be supplied by the entrance of the water at a level above that at which it is encountered and by its downward passage through joints or other openings which cross the beds.

ARTESIAN WELLS IN THE BLUE GRASS REGION.

Flowing wells are not common in the Blue Grass region, but artesian wells—wells in which the water is under artesian pressure—are found in many parts of the area. The wells which encounter the

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mineral water of the limestones are practically all artesian, and in a few localities where the wells are located in stream valleys the mineral water rises above the surface. Flowing wells of this class are found near Lexington, in Fayette County, near Harrodsburg, in Mercer County, and near Smitsonville, in Harrison County. The amount of water yielded by all these wells is small and the water is highly mineralized, being sulphureted and often brackish. The pressure of the escaping hydrogen sulphide gas in these waters may aid in producing the flow, the gas acting in the same manner as air which is forced into a well when an air-lift pump is used, but it is improbable that the gas pressure is sufficient to appreciably affect the height to which the water will rise. It is probable that the water in these wells does not enter at the outcrop of the beds under which it is moving, but finds its way in at various points along the underground streams through joints which reach the surface. The high mineral content of the water indicates that it has had a long underground course.

The shallow water in the limestone areas may be under artesian pressure wherever the underground channels are partly or wholly obstructed below the well, and if the water enters at a point higher than the surface at the well a flow may be obtained. No flows of this kind have been observed in the region.

The region is without large synclinal folds, and therefore contains no artesian basins. The flowing wells in the valleys of the large streams appear to belong to a structure intermediate between an artesian slope and an artesian basin. The rock in which this water occurs—the St. Peter sandstone—has been called both a sandstone and a siliceous limestone. It appears probable that some layers of this rock are very sandy while others are highly calcareous, but as the formation is known in this region only from well records its character is not easy to determine. It transmits water with a facility that suggests that it is either an open sandstone or a very porous limestone.

The effective head of the water in the St. Peter is 580 feet above sea level at the Murray well in Frankfort and 590 feet in the valley of Ohio River near Cincinnati. Flowing wells that reach this formation are located at Covington, Newport, Latonia, Frankfort, Boston, and the Old Crow distillery near the Woodford-Franklin County line. Flowing wells may be obtained in any part of the Ohio River channel where it borders the Blue Grass region and in the valleys of the principal tributaries of the Ohio where they have cut below about 590 feet above sea level. The flowing-well area would therefore include practically all of the gorge of Kentucky River within the Blue Grass region and the channel of Licking River for some distance above Falmouth, as well as the lower parts of some of the smaller valleys tributary to

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these streams. Flowing wells may also be obtained in the lower parts of the small valleys tributary to Ohio River.

The quality of the water from the St. Peter, which is shown by analysis No. 11, page 212, unfits it for domestic or industrial uses. The water has been used for cooling in distilleries, but it has been found to corrode the condensing pipes very rapidly, and their frequent renewal is necessary. It is highly esteemed as a medicinal water and has proved valuable where a strong salt-sulphur water is required. It is also a valuable water for stock. The well at Boston is located in a pasture where ordinary spring water is abundant, but the stock will, it is reported, drink only the salt-sulphur water. The water from the well at Frankfort has been used for drinking. Wells should not be located near dwellings, for the hydrogen sulphide has a very disagreeable odor and is injurious if breathed for any considerable period. It has also an injurious effect on metal and on varnished or painted woodwork. A well located at the Hemingray glass factory in Covington was plugged because the residents of the neighborhood objected to having their furniture and silverware damaged by the sulphurous gas.

The source of the pressure which causes the water of the St. Peter to flow is not definitely known. It has been suggested that the water enters from the upland and passes downward through joints and other open passages into the sandstone, but many facts render this explanation highly unlikely. The hypothesis that the Jessamine dome of central Kentucky might be the source of the pressure is also inadequate, as the mouths of the flowing wells are from 200 to 300 feet above the top of the St. Peter in the apex of the dome. A third and, according to present knowledge, the most reasonable explanation is that the water enters the sandstone in southern Wisconsin and northern Illinois and that the pressure is transmitted from those areas.

It has been rather generally supposed that the water of the St. Peter is sea water, which was stored in the rocks at the time of their deposition. Adherents of this theory explain the fact that the St. Peter water is less saline than sea water by assuming that the percentage of salt has been decreased by the addition of surface waters. Although this theory has certain points in its favor, it is believed that the long underground journey of the water through rocks more or less calcareous is quite sufficient to explain its present qualities.

RECOVERY OF UNDERGROUND WATER.

NATURAL RECOVERY.

Much of the water that sinks into the earth returns to the surface under the influence of gravity, capillarity, and by the action of plants. Sometimes one of these forces acts alone, but more often two of them

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are combined, and under some conditions one of the forces may oppose another. Capillary action, though usually not apparent, is very important, because it brings much water to the surface, where it is returned to the atmosphere by evaporation, or within the reach of the roots of plants, where it is absorbed. The water taken from the soil by plants is built into their tissues or evaporated through their leaves. This last process is usually called transpiration. Here gravity acts against the upward movement of the water caused by capillarity. Gravity combines with capillarity to bring the water to the surface at the foot of a slope. Capillary action causes the water to move more rapidly through the pores of the unconsolidated materials where the movement is downward under the influence of gravitation, the relative importance of gravitation and capillarity depending entirely on the size of the pores through which the water moves. If these pores are small, gravitation is much less important than capillary action; if they are large, gravitation is the principal cause of the movement of the water. Where water comes to the surface through open crevices or caverns, the movement is due wholly to gravity, but the weight of a column of water in the crevice or channel may cause the water to move upward in some parts of its course.

The water which is brought to the surface under the influence of capillarity alone is distributed over such a large area that it is rapidly absorbed by the atmosphere. That which is taken up by plants is given to the atmosphere either directly by transpiration or by evaporation when the plant decays. These processes go on so gradually that most of the water which is removed by them passes off as vapor. This fact has usually caused the influence of plants and capillarity on the amount of underground water to be disregarded, but in many regions the amount which is removed by these agencies probably equals 40 to 50 per cent of all the water absorbed by the soil.

Water which comes to the surface under the influence of gravity or the combined influence of gravity and capillarity emerges either in the form of springs or seeps.

Seepage is supplied by water from the pores of the rock and not from definite channels. It occurs wherever the level of the water table (p. 39) rises above the surface, as along the margins of streams, or where the surface and underground drainage is defective. The seepage which occurs along the margin of the streams forms but a small part of the whole, for the water also enters the channels of the streams below the water level. In the Blue Grass region water may be seen seeping from the rocks along the banks of the Ohio and other streams or in the depressions where the surface is comparatively level and the underlying rock is impervious. Many seeps on the upland

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are utilized for stock and sometimes for domestic purposes by digging a hole in which the water may collect.

The water which emerges at any point in sufficient volume to form a stream is called a spring. Springs are formed by water coming from underground streams or by the concentration of percolating water at one point. It is difficult to distinguish sharply between seeps and springs supplied by percolating water, for with variations in the amount of ground water the springs may diminish in volume until they become mere seeps, or the seepage may increase in volume until springs are formed. In such cases the name "intermittent spring" has been used, but this term is also applied to certain springs formed by underground streams.

In the Blue Grass region springs form a very important source of water for domestic and industrial uses, but they are especially important as sources of water for stock. They occur in all parts of the region and in all the geological formations, but large springs are numerous only in the Lexington and Highbridge limestones.

A hole excavated about a spring or seep is commonly called a pool. Pools are usually walled with rock or cement and serve as reservoirs for storing ground water. Some of the pools in the Blue Grass region are 10 feet or more in depth. On one side an opening is left through which the animals may enter the water, and the floor of the pool is made to slope from the entrance so that the animals may reach the water as its surface recedes during dry weather.

ARTIFICIAL RECOVERY.

WELLS.

The artificial recovery of underground water is accomplished by means of wells, which may be classified as dug, driven, bored, and drilled.

Wells excavated by pick and shovel or by blasting and removing solid rock are called "dug wells." A well of this type is especially adapted to rock formations whose water supply is scanty or is unevenly distributed, for it furnishes a large surface for the entrance of water and a correspondingly large storage capacity. Dug wells are easily constructed in materials which are sufficiently compact to prevent caving of the sides; in looser materials some sort of wall must be provided. In solid rock the work of excavation is greatly increased by the necessity for blasting. In the Ohio Valley the early wells were dug, some of them to a depth of 50 or 60 feet or even more. On the uplands most of the dug wells are 20 to 30 feet deep, though many are less than 20 feet and a few exceed 30 feet. A few wells were dug and blasted to a depth of 100 feet. Dug wells are

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especially liable to pollution because it is difficult to entirely exclude impure surface water. The dug wells vary in diameter from 3 to 5 feet, but in some localities, where a large storage capacity is desired, some of the dug wells are 25 to 30 feet in diameter.

Many driven wells have been sunk in the sands and gravels along Ohio River, and a few have been sunk in similar materials in the gorge of Kentucky River. Such wells are adapted only to unconsolidated sands and gravels, and hence there are none on the uplands.

Bored wells are excavated with an auger and, like driven wells, are adapted only to loose materials. A few bored wells have been sunk in the gravels along Ohio River. As the well is deepened an iron pipe the size of the hole is driven into the bore to prevent the walls from caving. In some wells a strainer is placed in the lower end of the pipe; but in others the pipe is driven down to within 8 or 10 feet of the bottom of the hole and the water enters through the sand or gravel below the end of the pipe. This method of sinking wells is slow, and unless the well is cased to the bottom the lower part of the bore is apt to fill in a very short time.

Drilled wells are put down by machinery of various sorts. In the Blue Grass region two types of machinery have been used. In the Ohio Valley at Covington a few wells have been sunk by means of a rotating pipe with loose steel shot at the cutting end. This method gives a core of rock nearly as large as the inside diameter of the pipe and thus enables the driller to judge the nature of the materials. On the uplands the churn drill is used. This drill depends for its effectiveness on the impact of a heavy steel bit which is raised and dropped in the hole. The drills are operated by horse power or by steam or gasoline engines. They are especially adapted to such rocks as are found in the region.

The type known as the diamond drill, which uses diamonds set in the bottom of the pipe instead of the loose shot, is not used in the Blue Grass region.

In unconsolidated materials the jet process is often used. In this process a stream of water is forced into the hole to loosen and wash out the material. An iron casing is forced in as fast as the hole is excavated.

The cost of drilling wells in the Blue Grass region ranges from 50 cents to $2 a foot, depending upon the diameter of the well and the amount of competition between drillers, the average being about $1 a foot. Driven and bored wells also cost about $1 a foot, the range being from 75 cents to $2.50. The cost of dug wells can not be readily ascertained, because few have been sunk within the last thirty years and most of the old ones were excavated by day laborers.

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WELL CASINGS.

Dug wells in unconsolidated materials are commonly walled with rock, which is rarely well cemented. Where the wells enter rock the casing is usually used above the rock, but in some places where the residual soil is thin no casing is used. The rock walls would be materially improved by cementing them firmly together and to the rock below, as this would exclude a large amount of surface water. In the Ohio River valley the wells which have been bored, driven, or drilled are all cased with iron pipe.

The drilled wells on the upland are also cased with iron pipe, which extends only to the solid rock. These wells might be rendered safer from pollution by taking greater precaution to make a water-tight joint between the casing and the rock. Where the soil is thin this could be done by digging down to the rock and cementing the casing to it, but where the loose material is several feet thick it would be more convenient and economical to use rubber washers, such as are used in oil wells.

Certain wells might be improved by casing off supplies of polluted surface water from underground streams near the surface; and some of the deep wells which have encountered both fresh and brackish waters could be improved by plugging the well below the supply of fresh water. In a few wells where water escapes through cracks or crevices above the point where the supply was encountered the head would be increased by extending the casing below the opening through which the water escapes.

METHODS OF RAISING WATER.

All artificial recovery of underground water except that by flowing wells requires the use of some method of raising the water to the surface. In some dug wells a bucket is used, the water being drawn up by a rope attached to a windlass. Rarely an old-fashioned well sweep is employed, or the bucket may be raised from the well by hand without the use of any apparatus.

Chain or valve pumps are used in many wells. The chain pump is held in high favor because a great part of the water which it raises falls back into the well and thus affords a certain amount of aeration for the water.

In the drilled, driven, and bored wells force pumps are commonly used. Hand power is the most usual method of pumping, but windmills or engines are used where large supplies are required. Windmills have not everywhere proved satisfactory, especially on the large stock farms, and many of them are being replaced by gasoline engines. Steam engines are used to pump water for industrial plants where a constant supply is needed. A few hot-air engines are also used for

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raising water in the Blue Grass region, and under certain favorable conditions "air lifts" have been installed.

COLLECTION AND STORAGE OF RAIN WATER.

CISTERNS.

Rain water is collected and stored in cisterns, ponds, and reservoirs. Where a small amount of water is needed it is usually collected from roofs and stored in cisterns. This method of procuring water for domestic use prevails throughout the upland areas of the Blue Grass region, and as cistern water is comparatively free from mineral matter it is usually considered more desirable than underground water.

Cisterns are ordinarily excavated to a depth of 10 to 20 feet, and where the materials are unconsolidated the cisterns are walled. In some parts of the Blue Grass region the wall is made of brick laid in cement, but the wall material most commonly used is stone. A stone wall, however, is satisfactory only where great care is taken to secure a perfect joint. Cisterns in rock are not walled, but the cement is applied to the rock, and if the rock contains water-bearing crevices the cement wall is apt to be too weak to withstand the hydrostatic pressure of the water outside the cistern. Under such circumstances the cistern should be walled just as if it were in unconsolidated materials. In some cisterns where the rock is exceptionally solid no cement is used, but the omission of the cement is hardly safe, because practically all rock admits some ground water into the cistern or allows some of the rain water to escape. Moreover, the rain water which is stored in uncemented cisterns gradually dissolves mineral matter from the rock and becomes hard.

Rain water collected after roofs and spouts have been thoroughly washed is practically free from inorganic matter. The desired washing is usually accomplished by allowing the first water which falls to escape through a waste valve. After the roof and pipes have been cleansed the waste valve is closed and the water is allowed to enter the cistern. This method is inconvenient, especially if the rainfall comes in the night, but it is desirable if the cistern water is to be kept pure and wholesome. During dry weather objectionable material of various sorts, such as dust that may contain germs of dangerous disease, leaves, or twigs, lodges on the roof or in the eaves troughs. Eaves troughs especially need constant attention, for they are frequently the nesting places of birds. Roofs should be kept painted to prevent the growth of moss and the accumulation of filth in the cracks.

Small filters are much used to purify the water before it enters the cistern, but their efficiency has frequently been overestimated.

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Filters such as those here described may be used to remove some of the suspended matter which may have been derived from unclean roofs or water spouts, but they can not be depended upon to free the water from the organic matter which is apt to cause disease. The filter in most common use consists of a tin cylinder, 2 to 3 feet high and 18 to 24 inches in diameter, partly filled with alternating layers of charcoal and sand or with charcoal alone. Above this material is a screen which catches the leaves and fragments of wood that may be washed from the roof. Filters of this type are valuable only when they are kept clean and the filtering materials are renewed frequently. A filter of another type is excavated in the ground and walled like a cistern. The filter is made large enough to hold the water from a single storm and is connected with the cistern by a passage placed some distance above the bottom of the filter. The sediment collects below the level of the connecting passage and may be removed through a manhole at the top of the filter chamber. The filtering materials are so arranged that all the water entering the cistern must pass through them. Like the materials used in other filters they should be frequently renewed or they will become filled with foreign matter and their efficiency will be reduced. These large filters are more expensive than the others, but when properly constructed and cared for they are much more effective.

RESERVOIRS.

Reservoirs built to impound surface waters are numerous throughout the upland areas of the Blue Grass region. These reservoirs furnish water of good quality, both for city supplies and for farm use. As a rule the water is not highly mineralized, but it is likely to be turbid, especially where the catchment area is cultivated. In selecting a site for a reservoir it is best to choose some place where the area of the water surface will be reduced to a minimum, as the smaller the area the smaller the loss by evaporation. The best location is in a comparatively narrow valley with a steep gradient, which will permit the construction of a deep and narrow reservoir. In some such places, however, the rock beneath the selected site is found to be so badly fissured that it would be impossible to prevent leakage. Under such conditions another location must be sought. In the country districts these artificial reservoirs, or ponds form a very important source of water for stock.

For city supplies it is often necessary to build more than one reservoir, and such reservoirs may be arranged one above another on the same stream. This arrangement has three distinct advantages: It allows the collection of a supply of water during wet weather amply sufficient to last through a drought; in its passage from one reservoir to another the water receives some aeration; and the upper

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reservoir catches most of the sediment and thus lowers the turbidity of the water at the point of intake in the lower reservoir.

MUNICIPAL WATER SUPPLIES.

SOURCES OF SUPPLY.

In the Blue Grass region both underground and surface waters are used for city supplies. The surface water is taken from rivers or small streams. The underground water is taken from streams in limestone, the supplies being obtained from wells which penetrate the channel of the stream or from springs at the point where the underground water reaches the surface.

SURFACE WATER.

The important sources of surface water for the region are Ohio River and its principal tributaries, or the small streams that enter these tributaries. Some of the small streams which are utilized for city supplies flow only a part of the year, and hence it is necessary to build storage reservoirs.

The surface water is ordinarily used without attempt to free it from the suspended matter present, though settling basins or filter plants have been constructed in a few places. Where more than one storage reservoir is available it is possible to utilize the uppermost as a settling basin, but the sediment may be so fine that much of it will reach the lower reservoir where the intake is located.

The sanitary character of the surface water varies greatly. Ohio River water is probably the most objectionable, because it receives the sewage of a number of cities above the region. The other rivers receive less sewage, but all of them flow through regions more or less densely populated. The water which is taken from small streams varies in character, according to the local conditions. One supply is from a stream which receives no drainage from farms, but all the other supplies are from streams which are to some extent polluted.

UNDERGROUND WATER.

In some localities the limitations imposed by nature make it impossible to procure enough underground water of a suitable quality for a city supply. Certain geologic formations of the Blue Grass region will not yield enough water at any one place for a city, while others contain water which is too highly mineralized for ordinary use. In fact, there are only two geologic formations—the Lexington limestone and the alluvium of the Ohio Valley—which will furnish enough underground water of suitable quality for a city, and neither can be relied upon to supply a large settlement. Water from the Lexington

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limestone is fit for use only when it is obtained above the level of surface drainage, and enough water for a public supply can be obtained only in certain localities where underground drainage is extensively developed.

COMPARATIVE VALUE OF UNDERGROUND AND SURFACE SUPPLIES.

Although most people prefer underground water to surface water, the preference is seldom based upon a careful consideration of the relative merits of the two supplies. Water from the alluvial gravels of the Ohio Valley is little utilized as a source of supply, because of its proximity to the river, from which a large quantity of water may be easily obtained. The Lexington limestone supplies considerable water in some localities where surface water can not be obtained without constructing storage reservoirs. The water from the gravels is probably freer from pollution than surface water, because it undergoes filtration in its passage through the sand; but it contains considerable mineral matter, which must be removed before it is suitable for some industrial uses. The surface water is often polluted by sewage and surface drainage, and hence its sanitary condition is doubtful. It also contains a large amount of suspended matter, which unfits it for certain purposes. The polluting substances and suspended matter may be removed from the surface water by filtration, and the dissolved mineral matter in the water from the gravel may be precipitated by the use of softening compounds. As it usually costs more to soften water than to filter it, the surface water may be regarded as more satisfactory for municipal and industrial purposes than the water from the gravels.

Wherever the Lexington limestone yields large supplies, the water is derived from streams flowing in caverns, and these underground streams do not differ from surface streams in any essential particular except that they are partially covered by a roof of limestone capped by a few feet of clay.

As the underground streams are partly covered, they probably receive less objectionable drainage than the surface streams. This is counterbalanced by the fact that the drainage basin of the surface stream is well known, and hence it is possible to discover sources of pollution. The courses of the underground streams and their tributaries are little known, and it is not often possible to protect them against pollution. There is, moreover, small chance for the water in the underground stream to be purified by natural means. Therefore the surface streams usually form a more desirable source of supply than the underground streams. The water from either source should, as a rule, be filtered before it can be regarded as safe.

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For industrial uses the surface waters have a decided advantage over those from the limestone, because they contain much less mineral matter in solution. It is true that the underground waters from the Lexington limestone are well adapted to certain industries; but they would need to be softened before they could be utilized for all purposes.

POLLUTION OF UNDERGROUND WATER IN THE LEXINGTON LIMESTONE.

In the preparation of this section on the pollution of underground waters in the Lexington limestone an attempt has been made to avoid, as far as possible, all strictly scientific and technical discussions, such as the efficiency of natural purification of waters and the value of various artificial methods of purification. Because of a desire to make the discussion as useful as possible, stress is placed upon the simple methods of tracing underground streams and determining possible sources of pollution.

The shallow water from the Lexington limestone is used for city supplies, and is fairly satisfactory. Certain features of this aquifer, however, suggest the possibility of pollution. Though it is possible to state certain general facts bearing on the subject of pollution, it is necessary to deal with each individual case strictly on its merits. The most important generalization is that the water which flows in limestone channels is not completely purified by its passage through those channels. There is a popular idea that water is purified by passing a short distance underground, a belief based partly on the effect of sand or sandstone on the water that traverses them. In close-grained, water-bearing rocks the purification is in part mechanical and takes place because the openings between the sand grains are very small; in other words, in removing objectionable matter the sand acts much like a filter. But when water flows through channels in limestone there is no filtration, and probably but little natural purification. The flow of water in limestone channels may be compared with its movement through ordinary water mains, and the chances for purification are about equal in the two cases. As there is little chance for natural purification of limestone waters, it becomes desirable to prevent pollution, and this can best be accomplished after the source of the polluting matter and the methods by which it reaches the water are thoroughly understood.

Persons using underground water are apt to consider its appearance and temperature indications of purity, for it is generally believed that water which is clear and cold is pure. No such belief is warranted by the facts, for some of the most dangerously polluted waters are both clear and cold.

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Certain waters will be rejected as unfit for use because of the occurrence in them of straw or other visible materials of organic origin, and the wisdom of such rejection is too apparent to need comment. The presence of suspended matter in water is often taken as an indication of the entrance of surface water through an open sink hole, but such conclusion also may be erroneous.

From an inspection of the accompanying diagrams it will be seen that the presence or absence of sediment can not be considered a safe

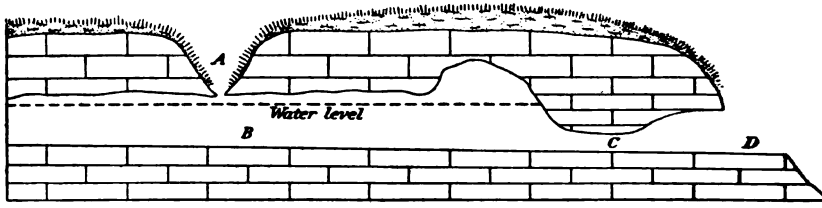

FIGURE 5.—Diagram of cavern showing how sediment may be deposited by the underground stream.

indication of the presence or absence of surface drainage. In the diagram (fig. 5) sediment-laden surface water entering at *A* may be so retarded in the chamber *B* that it deposits its suspended matter and passes through the constricted channel *C*, to emerge at *D* comparatively clear. In this case the water, though free from sediment, may contain considerable surface drainage in some other form. In figure 6, absolutely uncontaminated water in its passage round the fallen material from the closed sink *A* may obtain sediment and emerge at *B* so turbid as to cause the erroneous deduction that there is a direct connection with surface drainage.

The conditions represented by these two figures are transitory, for the chamber *B* (in fig. 5) will soon become partly filled with silt

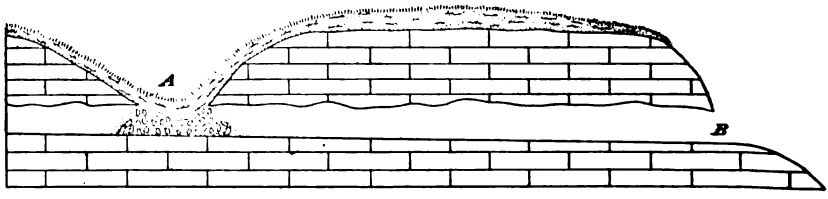

FIGURE 6.—Diagram of cavern showing how sediment may be obtained by the underground stream.

so that the water passing through the channel *C* will transport a considerable amount of sediment, while the gradual removal of material (in fig. 6) from the sink *A* will soon form an open hole. Such conditions may also be intermittent. In any case it is wise to refrain from drinking underground water which contains silt or clay, for while these materials in themselves are seldom injurious, they may indicate the presence of surface drainage which has received little or no natural purification. It must not be inferred that all

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surface drainage is harmful, but it is well to bear in mind the possibilities of pollution by such drainage, and if any part of the surface drainage comes from a city or from dwellings, the water should be rejected.

It was formerly thought that a sanitary analysis of water was a reliable means of determining its potability, but this dependence upon chemical tests has little by little proved to be unsafe. For this reason a careful examination of the drainage basin to discover possible sources of pollution is recommended as more reliable than chemical or bacteriological examinations of the water. On this subject Dole[a] says:

> In brief summary it may be said that careful study by practical sanitarians of the chemical and bacteriological results of analyses, made not in one small section alone but all over the country, has failed to show that laboratory methods can be depended upon to detect pollution. On the other hand, sanitary survey strikes directly at the source of the evil—pollution—and affords definite bases for its removal or for protection against it.

The futility of sanitary analyses is illustrated by several examples given by Leighton.[b] One citation is of especial interest to inhabitants of the Blue Grass region, because the samples of water were taken from Kentucky River. In this case one sample of water was taken from Kentucky River at the intake of the Frankfort waterworks and another was taken from the same stream below the outlets of the city sewers. Both samples were taken on the same date and were judged by the standards usually employed in determining the potability of water. The conclusion reached by Leighton[c] is:

> The important feature * * * is that here is a water, or a dilute sewage, taken below the sewers of a city of 20,000 inhabitants showing practically the same, if not a better, condition, according to the interpretation standards, than another sample taken from the stream above the sewers.

This conclusion should not be taken as a condemnation of the city supply of Frankfort, for it merely shows the absurdity of relying upon sanitary analyses alone to determine the potability of water.

A satisfactory method of determining the potability of water is by means of a sanitary survey of the watershed from which the supply is drawn. Such survey, including as it does an examination of the entire watershed from which the supply is taken, makes practicable the determination of the sources of polluting matter and the adoption of measures to prevent contamination. Wherever streams flow through inhabited areas considerable objectionable matter is certain to enter the water and pollution can not be entirely pre-

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[a] Dole, R. B., Sanitary inspection versus sanitary analysis: Proc. Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 31, pt. 1, 1905, p. 60.

[b] Leighton, M. O., The futility of a sanitary water analysis as a test of potability: Biological studies by the pupils of Wm. Thompson Sedgwick, Boston, 1906, pp. 36–53.

[c] Idem., p. 43.

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vented. For this reason filtration is desirable; but the dangers from such pollution may be minimized by the use of ordinary care in the disposal of sewage and other waste materials.

Sanitary surveys of small surface streams may be made with considerable ease, but similar examinations of underground streams are attended with more or less difficulty. In order to ascertain the possible sources of pollution in an underground stream in limestone, it is first necessary to determine the location of the channels of the main stream and its tributaries. The course of the underground system may usually be inferred from the general slope of the surface and the position of sink holes. The location of minor tributaries is often so uncertain that it is necessary to go over the probable drainage basin with great care. In addition to examining the areas which from their surface slope are associated with the underground stream, it is advisable to survey the territory immediately adjoining them, because some underground streams pass beneath surface divides.

Besides considering the course of the underground stream it is also necessary to know how surface drainage reaches it. The water in the limestones flows in well-defined channels, to which it gains access either by seepage through the soil or directly through open sink holes. A portion of the water which enters the soil is almost certain to find its way to some underground stream, either directly or through some of the numerous crevices which traverse the limestone, and although it may receive some filtration and oxidation in its passage through the soil, reliance can not safely be placed upon this method of purification. The water which passes through the open sink holes carries with it much of the objectionable matter it may have obtained in its passage over the surface of the ground. Whatever purification this water undergoes takes place as the result of oxidation, bacterial action, etc., in the stream; and it is doubtful if the changes to which such objectionable matter is subjected are sufficient to render recently polluted water potable.

In the United States tracing the course of underground streams has received little attention, but in Europe, especially in the vicinity of Paris, much work of this sort has been done. A summary of investigations made by the city of Paris is presented by Dole [a] in Water-Supply Paper No. 160, and the reader is referred to that publication for a discussion of the results.

The common method of tracing underground streams in limestone is to introduce some substance into the underground channel at a convenient place and then to determine the presence or absence of the material thus added by examining samples of water from the underground stream at another place more or less removed from the

[a] Dole, R. B., Use of fluorescein in the study of underground waters: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 160, 1906, pp. 73-85.

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point of initial introduction. Sometimes chemical salts are dissolved in water and introduced into the underground stream either directly through open holes or by seepage through the soil. Compounds which have been used are chlorides of sodium, calcium, or ammonium, potassium nitrate, and compounds of lithium or of iron. After the introduction of one of these substances chemical tests for its presence are made at frequent intervals in samples of water taken from the well or spring under study. For various reasons sodium chloride has been found to be most satisfactory and it is commonly used in preference to the other compounds. Successful experiments have also been made by coloring the water with solutions of potassium permanganate, fuchsine, Congo red, methylene blue, and fluorescein. Such substances as flour, starch, sawdust, leaves, oil, or cultures of bacteria may be suspended in the water and samples from the suspected spring or well water may be examined to determine their presence or absence. The choice of the material to be used depends largely on local conditions. Oil and other substances which float on the water are satisfactory only where there are no quiet reaches of water and no marked constrictions in the channel to delay their progress. In some streams they have proved satisfactory, while in others they have given negative results, and they are most useful in connection with other tests.

The use of fluorescein, one of the coal-tar products, is especially recommended, because this dye is not easily affected by the substances usually occurring in ground waters, and its color may be detected in very dilute solutions. According to Dole's abstract,[a] solutions containing 1 part of fluorescein to 10 billion parts of water will show, with the proper apparatus, the characteristic color of the fluorescein.

Salt or fluorescein may be placed in the underground stream and tests for their presence made at wells or springs at frequent intervals. In this way the time required for the substance to traverse the distance between the point of introduction and the places where samples are taken may be determined. If desired, the sampling may be continued until the water returns to its normal condition. It is usually best to take samples of water from as many sources as possible in order to determine the underground water conditions over an extended area. After the water has returned to its normal condition the testing materials may be introduced at some new locality and samples taken as before. This process can be repeated until the sources of the underground water are determined. It will usually be found that the stream receives tributaries from different directions in about the same manner as surface streams.

In choosing a spot for the introduction of the testing materials, preference is naturally given to places where there is free access to the underground channels, either through sink holes or through wells.

[a] Op. cit.

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In such places the fluorescein solution may be poured into the stream. The most satisfactory method of introducing salt is in the form of a strong brine, which may be allowed to flow into the stream. Where open sink holes or wells are not available, the fluorescein or brine is usually placed in a shallow depression and allowed to enter the underground stream by percolation through the soil. In order to determine whether a cesspool drains into the underground stream, the identifying material is usually placed in the cesspool and tests are then made to determine its presence in the stream.

The use of salt in tracing underground drainage requires a certain amount of chemical knowledge and some skill in the use of chemical apparatus, because it is not usually practicable to introduce enough of the material for recognition except by chemical examination. Fortunately the test for salt is simple enough to be readily understood by those who are not specialists in the subject. It is made by determining the amount of chlorine present in the water both before and after the addition of salt (sodium chloride), and the procedure for this estimate is that in common use among water analysts, namely, titration with silver nitrate solution, using potassium chromate indicator. The method is outlined in detail by Leighton.[a]

The amount of salt necessary for any given test depends largely upon the mode of introduction into the underground channel and the volume of the stream. Where the salt can be poured into open sinks, it is possible to get satisfactory results with a smaller amount than where it is necessary to depend upon percolation through soil. In the examination of the big spring at Georgetown, Ky., from 2 to 4 barrels of salt were used with good results; and as this is one of the largest springs in the Blue Grass region, it appears probable that the maximum amount given above should be ample for the examination of most of the underground streams in the area. However, for such streams as those that emerge at the large spring at Spring Station or at Russell Cave, it might be necessary to use from 6 to 10 barrels in order to procure decisive results.

Fluorescein could doubtless be used in tracing the course of the underground streams in the limestones of the Blue Grass region, and because the test employed in detecting its presence in water is so simple its use is attended with fewer difficulties than the use of salt. It is introduced into the underground streams either directly through wells or open sink holes or by percolation through soil. In alkaline waters a strong solution of fluorescein gives a red color by transmitted light and appears green by reflected light. If the solution is very dilute, the red color is not detectible, but the green color is very powerful. An apparatus called a fluoroscope, described in Water-Supply Paper 160, has been devised for recognizing small

[a] Leighton, M. O., Field assay of water: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 151, 1905, 50 pp.

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quantities of the dye in samples of water. This instrument is very simple, consisting merely of long, colorless glass tubes plugged at one end by stoppers blackened with plumbago. The tubes are filled with the samples of water, and the presence of fluorescein is demonstrated by a greenish tinge of the sample when it is viewed by reflected light.

Oil, fragments of wood, and sodium chloride were used in studying one of the underground streams of the Blue Grass region. The materials were put into the stream through an open sink about one-eighth of a mile from its point of emergence in a spring. The oil appeared at the spring in one hour, the chloride of sodium in seven hours, and the wood fragments had not appeared after a lapse of several days. Salt is satisfactory for use in streams having a daily flow of a few million gallons or less; but its introduction is impracticable in very large streams such as those found in some caverns.

Water from small channels in limestone may generally be considered safe provided care is taken to guard against local pollution; but the source of the water in the streams in large caverns should be sought. Whether an underground stream for a city supply is safe or not depends entirely on the local conditions. The first questions to be decided are the source and the direction of flow of the water. If the underground stream clearly does not receive polluted water, it may be regarded as a safe source of supply; but if the stream passes beneath or near the city, the intake should be located on the upstream side of the town. The importance of taking the supply from above the town is recognized when dealing with surface streams, but it is sometimes disregarded when the stream is beneath the surface. Not infrequently belief in the natural purification of underground water leads to carelessness in locating the intake. Occasionally the fact that there are several feet of solid limestone or beds of "soapstone" above the underground stream gives the impression that local drainage is excluded. Such idea is wholly erroneous, because the so-called solid limestone or the soapstone contains many cracks and crevices, which allow the surface water to enter the underground channel.

If water from limestone caverns is used, a sanitary survey is desirable to determine the course of the stream and the sources from which it obtains its supply. In a question of potability it is much better and far safer to make a practical inspection of the drainage area, as outlined in the preceding pages, than to place reliance upon a chemical analysis of the water.

The practice of putting rubbish, barnyard filth, etc., into sink holes should be abandoned. Still more reprehensible is the custom of running sewage into sink holes, thus converting the underground channels into natural sewers. This practice, by no means uncommon, is often defended by the claim that the water in limestone

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channels beneath the city is unfit for drinking. The correctness of this claim can not be disputed, but there are persons ignorant of the danger who continue to use the underground water. Moreover, those living at some distance from the city may take water from the polluted stream.

NOTES ON CITY SUPPLIES.

The Covington water system, which is the largest in the Blue Grass region, takes its supply from Ohio River. The water is pumped to a settling reservoir on the upland. From the settling reservoir it passes to a storage reservoir and thence to the distributing reservoir. Considerable sediment collects in the settling basin. Ohio River water contains some inorganic matter in solution; but the amount is not sufficiently large to render the water unfit for industrial uses.

The Cynthiana water supply is taken from Licking River. The water is pumped to a reservoir and distributed under gravity pressure to the city. The sediment in the water could be readily removed by the use of a mechanical filter. The small amount of inorganic matter held in solution does not render the water objectionable for use in boilers.

The Danville water supply is drawn from Dix River, and is reported to be satisfactory. There is no great danger of pollution, and as the water is filtered, its sanitary condition is guarded.

The Falmouth water supply is taken from Licking River. The water is so turbid that it is not suitable for domestic uses; but it is drunk by stock and utilized in some industries.

Frankfort is the only city which takes its supply from Kentucky River. There are no large cities on the Kentucky above Frankfort, but considerable waste from distilleries is allowed to enter the river. The water of the Kentucky, like that of other streams in the region, is very muddy during a large part of the year, and could be improved by filtration.

The Maysville water supply is pumped from Ohio River. The reservoir is situated on the upland above the town, at an altitude sufficient to give a very strong pressure in the city. The quality of the water is much the same as that of the river above Covington and Newport.

The Newport Water Company uses Ohio River water. This water is very turbid and its sanitary quality during a large part of the year is doubtful. The water is pumped to a reservoir on the upland and distributed to the city by gravity.

Lancaster has constructed an impounding reservoir on a small stream. The watershed of this stream is not cultivated and is uninhabited. The water is pumped directly from this reservoir into the mains.

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Lexington has a water supply which gives universal satisfaction. The water is impounded in three reservoirs, placed one above another on the same stream. The upper reservoirs serve as settling basins when the stream is high and the water turbid. Before being pumped into the mains the water is aerated and filtered. The water is used in nearly all of the manufacturing plants of the city.

The water supply of Paris is taken from a creek. A mechanical filter is used to remove sediment from the water. The supply is ample for the prospective needs of the city and should prove very satisfactory.

The Richmond Water Company takes its supply from a small stream which receives very little drainage of an objectionable character.

The water supply of Shelbyville is taken from Clear Creek. Unfortunately, the water is not always as clear as might be expected from the name of the source.

The supply for the city of Winchester is taken from two reservoirs constructed on a small stream. It is ample for all purposes.

The Lawrenceburg supply is taken from wells sunk in the Lexington limestone. The water is reported to be slightly hard, but it is satisfactory for use in boilers.

The Nicholasville supply was formerly taken from a reservoir on a small stream. It is now pumped from wells which are sunk at the edge of the reservoir, and these wells probably draw considerable water from the reservoir. This water is said to be slightly hard and to form a small amount of scale in boilers.

Georgetown is supplied with water from a large spring located on the west edge of the city. The water is moderately hard and forms some scale in boilers. The volume of the spring is always large, but it fluctuates greatly, rising rapidly after a rain and subsiding again in a short time. The water contains considerable sediment after a rain, and the character of the sediment suggests that surface drainage enters through open sinks.

The water supply of Berea College is derived from ten springs issuing from the sandstones of the mountains. Each spring is surrounded by a cement reservoir. The water is conveyed from these reservoirs to a 6-inch main, which conducts it to the college grounds. The combined flow of the ten springs is about 100 gallons per minute, and their altitude above the town gives a gravity pressure of 95 pounds per square inch. The water has been analyzed at the college and is reported to contain less mineral matter than water taken from cisterns. Springs like those that supply Berea College are numerous, and similar supplies could be installed in many of the towns near the mountains.

Table 7 gives the available information concerning the municipal water supplies of this region.

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TABLE 7.—*Municipal water supplies of the Ohio Cross-cut.*

SUPPLIES FROM RIVERS.

No.	City.	Owner.	Source.	From what distributed.	Capacity of reservoir or standpipe.	Elevation of reservoir or stand pipe in feet: Above water of source	Elevation of reservoir or stand pipe in feet: Above city	How distributed.	Length of mains.	Number of taps.	Number of taps per mile.	Number of people per tap.	Population of city in 1890.	Daily consumption.	Maximum capacity of pumps.	Consumer pressure.	Fire pressure.
					Gallons.				*Miles.*					*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
1	Covington, Central Covington, Latonia and Ft. Thomas.	City	Ohio River	Reservoirs	31,970,100 26,622,200 27,308,800	353	250	Gravity	45	10,430		45,000	42,938 54,185	2,824,430		100	100
2	Cynthiana	do	Licking River	Standpipe	315,000			do	7	400	70	2,500	3,[illegible]			100	100
3	Danville	do	Dix River	do	225,000	500	164	do	11	585	11[illegible]	1,800	4,285	350,000	2,000,000	70	70
4	Falmouth	do	Licking River	Reservoir	1,100,000			do	4	150	27	750	1,134			100	100
5	Frankfort	Frankfort Water Co.	Kentucky River	Reservoirs	4,000,000 4,000,000	329	300	do	15	1,250	130	10,000	9,48[illegible]	2,000,000	8,000,000	130	130
6	Harrodsburg	Harrodsburg Water Co.	Salt River	Standpipe	280,000	100		do	8	300	84		2,870	90,000	1,000,000	70	70
7	Maysville	Maysville Water Co.	Ohio River	Reservoirs	1,500,000 1,500,000	400	365	do	14	1,000	82	8,000	6,433	600,000	1,500,000	130	170
8	Newport and Dayton, Bellvue	City	do	Reservoir	6,000,000	330	250	do	35	5,000	205			1,185,100 10,405,000			

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SUPPLIES FROM SMALL STREAMS.

9	Lancaster	City	Springs and creek.	Reservoir	30,000,000	0	−100	Direct pressure.	4¼	135	40	1,000	1,040	15,000	1,000,000	40	100
10	Lexington	Lexington Hydraulic and Manufacturing Co.	Creek	do	640,000,000			do	43½	+2,716	388	+25,000	26,369	1,700,000		45	100
11	Paris	Paris Water Co.	Hinkston Creek	Standpipe	300,000	+ 40		Gravity and direct pressure.	9	725	108	3,750	4,603	500,000	2,500,000	50	100
12	Richmond	Water and Light Co.	Springs and creek.	do		+100	+ 50	do	6	525	90	3,000	4,653	150,000	2,000,000	−80	100
13	Shelbyville	Shelbyville Water and Light Co.	Creek	do	60,000			do	4		56	2,000	3,016	200,000	1,000,000	40	120
14	Winchester	Winchester Water Co.	do	do		+ 65		do	16	513	138	3,000	5,964	375,000		55	100

SUPPLIES FROM WELLS.

15	Lawrenceburg		4 wells	Standpipe		+100	+100	Gravity and direct pressure.	4	140	31	475	1,253	40,000	500,000	55	130
16	Nicholasville	Nicholasville Water Co.	do	do	150,000			do	4	150	50	750	2,393	7,000	500,000	50	75

SUPPLIES FROM SPRINGS.

17	Georgetown	Georgetown Water, Gas, and Electric Light Co.	Big spring					Direct pressure.		550	74	3,000	3,823	250,000	500,000	75	115
18	Berea	Berea College	Springs (10)	A reservoir at each spring.			+300	Gravity	6			1,200–1,500	762	30,000		95	95

[a] Covington. [b] Other cities.

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MINERAL WATERS OF THE BLUE GRASS REGION.

CHARACTER OF THE WATERS.

The underground waters of the Blue Grass region vary widely in composition, the amount of inorganic matter in water ranging from a few hundred to several thousand parts per million. Although the kind of mineral matter is determined by the character of the soil and rock through which the water has passed, certain mineral ions, such as calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium, chlorine, and the carbonate and sulphate radicles, are common to most of the waters of the region. This is to be accounted for by the fact that the substances mentioned are to be found in the soils and rocks of all parts of the region and that they are all more or less soluble in the ground waters. Many of the waters, especially those from the Ordovician rocks, contain small quantities of some of the rarer elements, such as boron, strontium, lithium, and iodine.

The most common type of mineral water in the Blue Grass region is the alkaline water which contains carbonates of lime, magnesia, sodium, and potassium, together with other carbonates and sulphates. These waters are found in nearly all parts of the area and are commonly designated hard waters.

Hydrogen sulphide occurs in most of the deep waters of the Ordovician area and in some of the waters from the Ohio shale. In the waters of the Ordovician rocks the hydrogen sulphide is often accompanied by petroleum or asphaltic material, suggesting that it is derived from the decomposition of organic matter. The sulphuretted waters from the Ohio shale probably derive their hydrogen sulphide from the decomposition of the sulphide of iron, which is abundant in the shale.

Salt is a very common constituent in the deep-seated waters of the Blue Grass region and it also occurs in some of the waters from the Ohio shale. Its frequent association with hydrogen sulphide has led to the use of the term "salt-sulphur" for such waters as those from the St. Peter sandstone and some of the waters from the Highbridge and Lexington limestones. Besides the salt-sulphur waters, salt waters which are free from hydrogen sulphide also occur.

Some of the waters of the Silurian and Devonian formations contain magnesium sulphates and are known as epsom waters. Sodium carbonate (glauber salts) is also common in some of the waters from the Devonian and Silurian shales. Various other mineral substances are known to occur in the waters from the Ohio shale, the most prominent being the iron which occurs in the Chalybeate Springs. The iron appears in the springs in the form of the hydrous oxide,

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which is probably formed by oxidation of the iron compounds present in the spring water.

The wells which penetrate the St. Peter sandstone obtain strong salt-sulphur water, known locally as "Blue Lick" water. The water is often used for medicinal purposes. The wells which are best known are located at Newport, Boston Station, and Frankfort. At Sanders a well which probably penetrated this formation procured a salt-sulphur water which is said to contain a notable quantity of lithia. This water is sold under the name of the Eagle Valley Lithia Water.

Water is being sold from a number of wells in the Lexington limestone, and, judging from the mode of occurrence and the analyses, there are many others which might supply marketable water. The best known mineral waters from wells in this formation are the Lexington Lithia water and the Renfro water. The former contains considerable lithia and the latter contains both lithia and sulphur.

One of the best known of the medicinal waters is the "Blue Lick" water which comes from the Lower Blue Lick Springs. This water has a large sale and has been known throughout the South for more than half a century. It also has a large sale in the northern half of the country. The composition of the water, as shown by the analyses, has not changed materially in the last fifty years.

Salt-sulphur water is obtained from the Upper Blue Lick Spring, the Big Bone Springs, the Sanders Sulphur Spring, Drennon Springs, and from many other springs in various parts of the region.

So remarkable is the general resemblance between the Blue Lick water and the water of the St. Peter sandstone that it has often been suggested that the Blue Lick water comes from the St. Peter. Aside from the fact that both are salt-sulphur waters, there is little reason to believe that they have the same origin. Their mode of occurrence suggests that the Blue Lick Springs may derive their water from either the Winchester or the Lexington limestone. In support of this idea it may be said that the Blue Lick water resembles somewhat the deep waters of these limestones, though the resemblance is due rather to such constituents as salt, sulphur, and other elements common to many of the Blue Grass waters rather than to the less common compounds, such as are mentioned in the chemical discussion (p. 207) under the head of Lower Blue Lick Springs. No evidence was noted that would suggest that a fault existed at the Blue Lick Springs, and in the absence of faulting it does not appear probable that the waters of the St. Peter sandstone would rise through the Lexington and Highbridge limestones which overlie the St. Peter.

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Big Bone Springs supplies a strong salt-sulphur water which, as already stated, resembles the Blue Lick water. There were originally three springs at this locality. A well which was drilled at one of these springs is reported to have encountered salt-sulphur water at depths of 150 and 500 feet. This well now flows through a wooden pipe which rises 4 feet above the ground, and since it has been drilled one of the original springs has nearly ceased to flow. The water which is now being sold comes from this well. From the well logs (see report of Boone County, p. 163) it appears probable that the Big Bone Springs water originally came from the Lexington or Highbridge limestones, and these formations now supply the water which is obtained from the flowing well.

The limestone of the Maysville formation furnishes very little water of commercial value. At Buffington there are three springs belonging to J. S. Haynes, which supply water for a small health resort, known as Keo-Me-Zu Springs. These springs are situated within a radius of 20 feet, but they present certain differences in composition. The only other locality where the Maysville formation is known to furnish water of commercial value is at Beechwood, Owen County. The Beechwood Spring—really a shallow well—furnishes water containing a large amount of magnesium, apparently in the form of magnesium sulphate.

The Silurian shales furnish mineral waters at Crab Orchard, just outside the area mapped, but they are not important within the Blue Grass region. They are the source of some mineral water in eastern Clark County, and possibly in some of the neighboring counties. The upper limestone beds of this series furnish an abundance of water in localities where they are not deeply buried beneath the Waverly shale. Some of the springs from the limestone of the Panola formation are being extensively used, the most prominent being the Anita and Royal-Magnesian springs. The waters of these springs are not sold as mineral waters, but they find a ready market as pure drinking waters. Other springs from this formation are known near the western margin of the area and at various points on the eastern side of regions in the vicinity of Waco and elsewhere.

The Ohio shale furnishes valuable mineral waters at various points in central Kentucky. Within the area mapped the most important localities are Linietta Springs, at Junction City, and Alum Springs, 4½ miles west of Junction City, Boyle County; Fox Springs, Fleming County; Dripping Springs, Garrard County; Kiddville and Oil Springs, Clark County. Outside the area mapped are some very important springs which have been included in this report—Estill Springs, Olympia Springs, and Crab Orchard Springs. These resorts were not visited by the writer. Both the occurrence and the character of the waters are fully described in several of the reports of the

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Kentucky Geological Survey. The Olympia Springs were discussed by Linney in his report on the geology of Bath County, from which the following statement is taken:[a]

These springs are situated near the head of Mud Lick Creek, 2½ miles from the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad, at Olympia station, and consist of a salt well, a salt-sulphur well, black-sulphur well, two chalybeate springs, and a well and a spring whose waters are alkaline saline. Some of these have been known and used nearly since the first settlers came to this part of the State. The geological position of these waters is the same which gives rise to the majority of mineral waters in the State. They arise from near the union of the rocks of the Corniferous limestone with the black slate. This is a horizon in which magnesian limestones, clay shales, salt, sulphide, carbonate and other forms of iron, and minute quantities of other minerals are found in close proximity. Water penetrating the rocks dissolves the mineral matters in various proportions, new combinations are formed, and thus originate these various mineral springs.

In his report on the geology of Lincoln County, Linney gives the following facts relating to the source of the Crab Orchard Springs and the Crab Orchard salts:[b]

In Lincoln County there are a large number of mineral springs. Some of these, situated in and near Crab Orchard, have old and extended reputations. These springs furnish several classes of water.

The black slate everywhere contains more or less of the sulphides of iron. These compounds, by their decomposition, furnish a variety of sulphur, and sulphur and chalybeate waters—among which salt-sulphur and black-sulphur are the most common.

The lower Subcarboniferous shales furnish some weak springs of chalybeate, but the best water of that kind issues from a layer in the Upper Silurian, which contain oxides of iron.

In the Crab Orchard shales are a number of springs and seeps which furnish magnesian waters. Weak alum waters are known at a few places, while salt water has been obtained in the county in boring wells for other purposes.

Crab Orchard salts is a name given to a peculiar variety of epsomite—Epsom salt or magnesian sulphate—which is manufactured from the Crab Orchard shales of the Upper Silurian in Lincoln and Garrard counties. They differ from the common type of other magnesian salts, so well known to commerce as a medicine, in containing a number of other ingredients which enhance their value.

This strip of country, in which these shales predominate, and the manufacture of these salts is conducted, is an irregular one, about 13 miles in length, and from a few hundred yards to 2 miles in breadth. They lie on a slope in the rocks to the southeast, and are from 16 to 40 feet in depth. Through all this line and thickness they are impregnated with the minerals which characterize the salts.

The origin of this deposit is an interesting question, worthy of investigation. That the shales and the minerals contained in them were thrown down from solution during the evaporation of the ocean water in shallow basins, raised above the sea level, is hardly to be accepted, as the differences in the shale and the interstratification of limestone would require other conditions for their formation. It seems more probable that the materials for the shales were swept in and deposited in protected places by currents, and that afterward these minerals, which had been contained in the magnesian layers of the Upper Silurian and Devonian series, were carried down this slope, and found in those shales the conditions for their deposition and preservation.

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[a] Linney, W. M., Reports on the geology of Bath and Fleming counties: Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1886, pp. 36, 37.

[b] Linney, W. M., Report on the geology of Lincoln County, Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1882, pp. 29–32.

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A bulletin of the Kentucky Geological Survey, by A. F. Foerste, received after the preparation of the body of this report, discusses the mineral waters of the Ohio shale as follows:[a]

It has been stated that the table of contents of the waters from a mineral spring is but an index of the various geological strata through which its waters have passed and of the mineral bodies with which they have come in contact. In this sense, the Devonian black shales should be of special interest to the people of Kentucky, since a considerable part of the springs which are visited, more or less for their medicinal virtues, issue from the black shales. Among these may be mentioned the Fox Springs, 8 miles east of Flemingsburg, in Fleming County; the Olympian Springs, in the southeastern part of Bath County; the Oil Springs, about a mile northeast of Indian Fields, in the northeastern part of Clark County; the Estill Springs, about a mile north of Irvine, in Estill County; Hale's well, about 4 miles southeast of Stanford, in Lincoln County; the Linietta Springs, northwest of Junction City, in Boyle County; Alum Springs, 2 miles farther west, in Boyle County; the Sulphur Springs, 3 miles southeast of Lebanon, in Marion County; and numerous other springs, less known but with waters containing the same ingredients.

PRODUCTION OF MINERAL WATERS.

The total sales of mineral water from the Blue Grass region approximate $200,000 annually. Of this amount, about one-fourth is derived from the sale of table waters and the remainder from the sale of medicinal waters. Apart from the sales, considerable water is consumed at the springs where there are hotels.

COUNTY CONDITIONS.

ANDERSON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Anderson County is located near the western border of the Blue Grass region. Its western boundary is formed by Kentucky River, which here flows in a trench more than 400 feet below the upland and so narrow that the river occupies nearly the entire width of the gorge.

The surface of the upland near the Kentucky is broken by deep canyons where the tributary streams have cut into the limestone formations. A short distance back from the river the surface becomes gently rolling, exhibiting shallow valleys separated by rounded divides. Toward the western boundary the valleys are deeper and narrower and the areas of level upland are much smaller.

A narrow strip along the eastern edge of the county is drained by small streams tributary to the Kentucky within the county, and a small area in the northern part by streams that join the Kentucky in Franklin County. The central part of Anderson County is drained

[a] Foerste, A. F., The Silurian, Devonian, and Irving formations of east-central Kentucky: Bull. Kentucky Geol. Survey No. 7, 1906, p. 255.

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by Salt River, which enters from the south, flows northward to a point a few miles southwest of Lawrenceburg, then takes a southwesterly course to Van Buren, where it leaves the county. This stream receives no large tributaries within the county except Crooked Creek, which flows along the western border of the county and joins the Salt near Van Buren. A small area in the southwestern part of the county is drained by two tributaries of Chaplin River—Beaver and Sulphur creeks.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials of Anderson County consist of yellow or red clays from 2 to 8 feet thick, the average thickness being probably less than 3 feet. These soils yield water in few localities to wells, but they store considerable quantities and supply it gradually to the crevices in the underlying rock. A deposit of sand containing pebbles of chert—the alluvium which has been transported from the hills to the southward and deposited wherever the gorge was wide enough to permit its accumulation—is found in narrow, discontinuous strips along Kentucky River. Such alluvial deposits supply water in abundance to springs and driven wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The geologic formations appearing at the surface in Anderson County include the Highbridge limestone, which is exposed in the Kentucky River gorge; the Lexington limestone, which forms a part of the upper walls of the gorge and extends out a short distance on the upland, and which is also exposed in the valley of Salt River from the southern line of the county to the point where the river makes the bend toward the southwest; the Winchester limestone, which lies in narrow strips outside the areas of Lexington limestone and occupies a large area in the central part of the county; and the Eden shale. It is possible that rocks belonging to the Maysville formation may occur on some of the higher hilltops near the western boundary of the county, but no evidence of their presence has been obtained.

In areas where they appear at the surface the Highbridge, Lexington, and Winchester limestones furnish considerable hard water to springs and shallow wells. At depths varying from 50 to 100 feet, however, the Lexington and Highbridge yield salt and salt-sulphur water; and highly mineralized water, usually containing salt and sulphur, is also obtained from wells in the Winchester limestone which have been sunk below the level of the surface streams. The Eden shale usually occurs on the slopes or tops of hills and in such situations

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that it furnishes only small quantities of water to springs and shallow wells; below depths of 30 to 35 feet it contains practically no water.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies the county and will furnish flowing wells in the gorge of Kentucky River and probably in the lower parts of some of its tributaries. The water from this horizon is however, highly mineralized, and is in addition saturated with hydrogen sulphide gas.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

The water for city supplies and manufacturing in Anderson County is obtained from drilled or dug wells, cisterns, and springs.

Drilled wells are numerous in the eastern part of the county, especially near Tyrone, McBrayer, and Lawrenceburg, the city last named obtaining its supply from wells sunk in the Lexington limestone. The drilled wells vary in depth from 40 to 80 feet, although a few of them obtain water at 25 feet or less. Sulphur water is encountered at various depths, ranging from 25 to 30 feet in the valleys of some of the tributaries of Salt River to over 100 feet near Kentucky River.

Dug wells are found in all parts of the county, but they are more numerous in the western part. Few of them exceed 30 feet in depth and they are apt to fail in times of drought. The water is of good quality except where the wells are located too near buildings.

Cisterns also are extensively used in all parts of the county, and in the western part they form the best sources of supply for domestic purposes, but many are in use in the eastern part, where good well water is available.

Springs are numerous throughout the county, but they vary greatly in size, being large in the eastern half of the county and small in the western half. As the spring water is usually hard, it is used but little for domestic purposes. A number of springs are, however, used for manufacturing, and a part of the supply for the village of Tyrone comes from a spring in the Kentucky gorge.

Most of the underground water used for manufacturing comes from the Winchester and Lexington limestones.

BOONE COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Boone County, one of the most northerly counties of the Blue Grass region, is bordered on the north and west by Ohio River, whose channel here occupies a steep-sided gorge.

The surface of the county is a plateau, deeply trenched by narrow gorges near the river, but nearly level in the interstream areas, which

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are occupied in large part by flat-topped divides. Altitudes within the county have an extreme range of over 500 feet—from about 420 feet above sea level along the Ohio to more than 940 feet on the highest parts of the upland. The descent from the level of the upland to the river is usually precipitous, and the small streams, which as a rule make the descent within a distance of 3 or 4 miles, have very steep gradients. The larger tributaries have cut deep channels for a distance of several miles back from the river.

The Ohio receives in this county water from many small tributaries and from three creeks of considerable size—Woolper, Gunpowder, and Big Mud Lick. These creeks not only drain the greater part of Boone County, but small areas outside of it. The drainage basin of Woolper Creek is largely north and west of Burlington; Gunpowder Creek receives the drainage of the south-central part of the county; and the southern end of the county drains into Big Mud Lick Creek, either directly or through Big Bone Creek.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

Above the rock in the southern part of the county is a deposit of residual clay, averaging 5 or 6 feet in thickness, which has been produced by the weathering limestones and shales of the Maysville. It varies in color from yellow to brownish red, and is usually dense where it was derived from the shales and more porous where the original rock was limestone. The porosity of these limestone soils seldom equals that of the loam derived from the Lexington limestone in Fayette County. The residual materials do not furnish water directly to wells and springs in this county, but they store the moisture and give it to the crevices and channels in the rock from which the wells and springs draw their supplies.

The northwestern part of the county is capped by a loesslike silt (see silt-loam soil, p. 33) to an average depth of 2 or 3 feet, with a maximum of about 6 feet. Beneath the silt is glacial drift, a few feet thick, composed largely of residual clay containing fragments of limestone and pebbles of chert, with occasional bowlders of granite. In the vicinity of Bullittsville and Hebron the glacial drift consists of water-deposited sand and gravel, but this phase is apparently restricted to the ancient channel of a small stream which existed before the deposition of the drift.

In the valley of Middle Creek there is a deposit of sand and gravel which locally exceeds 40 feet in thickness and which is not known to extend beyond the boundaries of the drainage basin. Above the gravel of this deposit, which has in some places been cemented into

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a hard conglomerate, is a layer of sand several feet thick, capped by 5 or 6 feet of loesslike silt. The drift rests upon the original surface, which it has modified very little.

In the Ohio Valley near Bellevue the glacial drift forms well-defined knolls which rise to nearly 250 feet above the gravel terraces which border the river. In some places the residual soil has been very little disturbed. The drift has about the same color as the residual material from which it was largely derived.

The glacial deposits over most of the county serve the same purpose as the residual materials—that is, they store the water and supply it to openings in the rock below. The glacial materials are as a rule somewhat less porous than the residual, but they are much thicker and therefore hold a greater volume of water. Where the drift consists of sand and gravel it supplies water for both wells and springs. Rock springs, from the conglomerate in Middle Creek Valley, are very well known throughout the western part of the county. In the vicinity of Bullittsville and Hebron the glacial gravels supply remarkably pure soft water to half a dozen wells and a number of springs.

The hillside slopes underlain by Eden shale are usually covered by a mass of talus, composed of blocks of limestone with more or less silt or clay. The streams are constantly transporting this material toward the river, but the accumulation usually goes on more rapidly than the removal. The deposition of the material at the points where the tributary streams enter the main valley gives rise to alluvial fans. The talus deposits supply moderate quantities of water to springs and shallow wells.

The alluvium along the small streams is usually made up of coarse angular or subangular fragments mixed with silt or clay, the large fragments predominating to such an extent that the material is very porous. It contains large quantities of water in wet weather, but the supply is apt to be exhausted during periods of drought.

In the Ohio Valley the alluvial deposits are also very porous and they absorb a large amount of water, receiving not only that which falls directly upon the surface of the gravel but much drainage from the upland. These deposits furnish, at depths of 80 to 110 feet, an abundance of water which, although moderately hard, contains less inorganic matter than the water from the limestones.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The surface rocks of Boone County include the Winchester limestone, which outcrops in the Ohio Valley and in the lower course of the tributaries of the Ohio; the Eden shale, which is exposed on the stream slopes for a distance of several miles back from the river but which does not reach the surface on the upland; and the Maysville

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formation, which is at the surface over all the upland portion of the county. It is possible that the Lexington limestone forms a part of the channels of the streams near the southeast corner of the county, but important exposures of this rock are not found in the county.

The Winchester limestone in this region is from 40 to 50 feet thick and is exposed only in the lowest parts of the valleys. In some of the smaller stream valleys it may yield fresh water, but in most localities the water from this horizon is brackish and in many places it is sulphurous. Its quality would in general render it unfit for domestic or industrial uses.

The Eden shale, which overlies the Winchester limestone with a thickness of about 300 feet, furnishes practically no water for either springs or wells.

Overlying the Eden shale are the rocks of the Maysville formation, which comprise a series of interlaminated limestones and shales somewhat exceeding 200 feet in thickness. In the northern half of the county, especially in the vicinity of Burlington and Florence, the heavy bedded limestones of this series contain some caverns, not large enough to permit exploration, but indicated by numerous small sink holes. In this part of the county underground water conditions are greatly favored by the porosity and unusual thickness of the loose materials above the limestone. In the southern part of the county, where the shales of the formation are the predominant surface rock, the amount of underground water is smaller, although locally the occurrence of limestone beds furnishes more favorable conditions. The residual materials in this part of the county, being derived from argillaceous rocks, are rather heavy clays, and although they have great storage capacity they furnish only moderate quantities of water to the underlying rocks.

Wells in the limestone of the Maysville formation obtain water at depths ranging from 10 to 35 feet, but the amount of water varies greatly from time to time. The underground channels fill quickly after a rain, but the supply is soon lessened by dry weather, and during periods of drought the shallow wells and many of the springs may be dry. Where the upland borders the Ohio Valley numerous springs emerge from the contact of the limestone beds with the underlying shale layers. Many of these springs are situated 300 or 400 feet above the river; but there is, of course, no foundation in fact for the popular belief that they lie on the highest points of land, for the water comes from higher areas a short distance back from the river. The water found in the rocks of the Maysville formation contains considerable amounts of inorganic matter, but is not too hard for ordinary uses.

The Highbridge and Lexington limestones are under cover in this county, but where they were penetrated in drilling for oil near Big

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Bone Springs some salt water and considerable gas were found. Here, as elsewhere in the Blue Grass region, the water in these formations occurs in channels which may or may not be encountered in drilling; but as neither formation supplies fresh water where it is buried beneath younger rocks, it is useless to drill into them for water for domestic or industrial purposes.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies Boone County at depths varying from less than 900 feet in the deeper valleys to 1,400 feet on the upland, but it has not been reached by any deep wells. It would furnish flowing wells in all the valleys which are cut below about 590 feet above sea level, including the Ohio Valley and the lower courses of its principal tributaries, but it is safe to say that the quality of the water would be the same as at Frankfort and Cincinnati, where the formation furnishes the strong salt-sulphur water commonly known as "blue lick" water.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

In the Ohio Valley wells penetrating the alluvium have been uniormly successful except at Taylorsport, where a fine sand was encountered which caused the abandonment of two wells. The Boone County distillery takes its entire water supply from the alluvium. On the upland, however, drilled wells have been unsuccessful, either failing to obtain any water or finding brines. A well drilled to a depth of 200 or 300 feet at Walton found no water, but encountered considerable gas. At Florence a drilled well between 150 and 200 feet deep obtained a small supply of water, said to be brackish, and attempts to increase the amount by exploding dynamite in the well were unsuccessful.

The following record of one of the three deep wells drilled for oil near Big Bone Springs was supplied by Mr. Geer, the driller:

Record of drilled well near Big Bone Springs.

	Feet.
Soapstone (very white) and limestone	0–100
Hard limestone; strong flow of salt water at 105 feet; small flow of gas at 160 feet	100–160
Limestone (light colored); strong flow of gas at 165 feet, and small flows of gas at 177 and 193 feet	160–500
A few feet of "slate," followed by limestone (alternating light and dark)	500–800

An incomplete set of samples from another well at the same locality was identified by E. O. Ulrich as follows:

	Feet.
Lower Lexington limestone (Hermitage and Logana)	150–240
Curdsville	240–288
Tyrone	288–330

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A well drilled at one of the Big Bone Springs is reported to have obtained salt water at 150 and 500 feet. The flow was so strong that drilling was stopped. The water from the well has the same properties as that of the springs and is now being sold as Big Bone Spring water.

Shallow dug wells are numerous on the upland areas of Boone County and afford considerable water, though many of them fail in dry weather. Few wells have been dug in the last quarter of a century, and except in the northern part the old wells are gradually being abandoned in favor of cisterns, which provide most of the water for domestic use, some being in use even in the Ohio Valley where underground water is abundant.

BOURBON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Bourbon County is located in the east-central part of the Blue Grass region. Its surface is a gently rolling plateau, crossed by streams which flow in broad, shallow valleys. Through the central part of the county Stoner Creek, a tributary of Licking River, has cut a channel more than 200 feet deep, but over a large part of the area the relief does not exceed 100 feet. The long, narrow ridge which rises abruptly above the surrounding country in the southeastern part of the county received from the early settlers the name "Cane Ridge."

Stoner Creek receives the drainage from the entire county except small areas near the eastern and northern boundaries. The principal tributaries of this creek in Bourbon County are Strodes Creek, Coopers Run, Flat Run, and Townsend Creek. The northern and eastern parts of the county are drained by Hinkston Creek, which receives within the county several small tributaries, the largest being Boones Creek.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The large streams of Bourbon County are bordered by narrow strips of alluvium, composed of assorted sands and gravels, but the formation covers too small an area to be important as a water bearer.

The residual soils of the county consist of the porous loams and clays common to the Blue Grass region. They are usually about 3 feet thick, but in exceptional localities the thickness may be somewhat greater. These soils store moisture which is transmitted to the underlying rocks and assists in maintaining their water supply during dry weather.

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CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The rock formations of Bourbon County include the Lexington and Winchester limestones and the Eden shale.

The Lexington limestone forms the surface rock over a large part of the county west of the east side of Stoner Creek Valley and yields an abundance of hard water for springs and wells. Most of the wells obtain water at depths of 100 feet or less, but those which penetrate below the level of the surface streams or enter the Highbridge limestone may find salt-sulphur waters. Some of the springs in this county are exceptionally large and have fairly uniform flow.

The Winchester limestone is exposed in a narrow strip along the west and northwest boundaries of the county and covers a large area bordering the Lexington limestone in the eastern part of the county. Where this formation is at the surface it furnishes moderate quantities of hard water. It might also furnish water for deep wells, but such water would be too highly charged with salt and sulphur to be fit for ordinary uses.

The Eden shale covers the high ridges and hills in the southeastern part of the county and caps some of the hills in the northwestern part, and small exposures are also found in the northeastern part of the area. It furnishes little water except to springs and shallow wells.

The St. Peter sandstone, which underlies the county, would furnish an abundance of salt-sulphur water, but none of the wells would flow, and except in the bottoms of the valleys the water would probably not come within 200 feet of the surface.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

The water supply of Paris, the county seat, is taken from a stream near the city, and since the installation of a filter plant this supply ranks as one of the best in the Blue Grass region. In addition to the municipal supply, many cisterns and a few drilled wells are in use at Paris, and a large spring in the western part of the city supplies water for a number of families. Since the underground stream which supplies this spring passes under a thickly inhabited part of the city, the water can scarcely be regarded as safe, even though its use does not appear to be injurious.

Several hundred wells, ranging in depth from 30 to more than 100 feet, have been drilled in Bourbon County, and in most localities they have been very successful; but in a few places they have obtained no water, and some wells near Shawhan encountered strong brine which was unfit for use. Salt-sulphur waters are usually found at depths ranging from 30 feet in some of the valleys to 100 feet or more on the hills.

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Dug wells are numerous throughout the county, but they are gradually being abandoned in favor of cisterns, from which the water for domestic use is commonly obtained. The average depth of the dug wells does not exceed 35 feet. Two deep wells in this county, one about 80 feet and the other 120 feet, were sunk by digging and blasting. As the residual clay is in few places more than 20 feet thick, the amount of rock which had to be removed must have made the sinking of these wells a difficult task.

The cisterns in general use are as a rule well constructed, and they receive such excellent care that they form very satisfactory sources of supply. The use of cisterns and a small hand engine for fire protection in the small towns of the county is strongly recommended.

Besides the spring at Paris, four other springs in the county supply large quantities of water, and springs of moderate size are found on nearly every farm. Several of the large plantations are supplied with water pumped from springs to reservoirs or standpipes and distributed to the buildings by gravity pressure.

BOYLE COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

The surface of Boyle County, on the southern border of the Blue Grass region, is greatly diversified. On the eastern boundary of the county is Dix River, flowing between nearly perpendicular walls of limestone in a gorge cut to a depth of more than 300 feet below the level of the gently rolling upland, which extends from the river westward to beyond Perryville and from the northern line of the county southward nearly to the line of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad. South of the Louisville and Nashville and west of the Cincinnati Southern Railroad is a deeply dissected area belonging to the mountainous province. The mountains here are somewhat lower than farther east in the Blue Grass region, and few of them rise more than 250 to 300 feet above the level of the upland. From the upland to the mountains the transition is usually abrupt, though the hills on the upland appear to be highest near the mountains.

Dix River receives the drainage of the eastern part of the county, its principal tributaries being Balls Branch, Wilson Run, and Harrod Branch. A small area in the southeastern part of the county is drained by the tributaries of the Hanging Fork, and the southwestern part drains to Salt River through North Rolling Fork and its tributaries. The northern half of the county, west of Atoka, is drained by Salt and Chaplin rivers, which head in the mountainous area of the county, and, after flowing northward for several miles, turn westward to the Ohio.

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GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soils of Boyle County vary with the character of th underlying rock. On the shales of the Eden, Panola, and Ohi formations they consist of dense, heavy clays, at few places thicke than 2 or 3 feet; on the limestone formations they are usually mucl lighter and approach loam in texture; on the Waverly shale, whicl occupies only the mountain tops, they were derived from the sand stone layers, and consequently they have the texture of a sandy loam

The unconsolidated materials in this county furnish directly littl well or spring water; but here as elsewhere in the Blue Grass regio the residual soils store considerable moisture and transmit it grad ually to the crevices in the underlying rocks. The thin layers o gravelly alluvium found along some of the larger streams suppl moderate quantities of water in the neighborhood of the streams.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The rocks exposed at the surface in Boyle County include the Highbridge, Lexington, and Winchester limestones, the Eden shale limestones and shales of the Maysville formation, the blue shales and limestones of the Panola formation, and the Ohio and Waverly shales, and the county is divisible into water provinces depending entirely on the character of the surface rocks.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed in the gorge of Dix River and in the lower parts of some of its tributaries and furnishes fresh wate only along that stream.

The Lexington limestone forms the upper part of Dix River gorge, covers a large part of the upland between Dix and Salt rivers, and is also exposed along the headwaters of Chaplin River. The Winchester limestone forms a narrow band south of the Lexington limestone from Dix River to the Cincinnati Southern Railway, and west of this railroad it spreads over broad areas on the upland along the head-waters of Salt and Chaplin rivers and on the divides between these streams. West of Perryville the Winchester limestone reaches nearly to the Washington County line, and northwest of Danville it occupies some small areas near the Mercer County line. The areas underlain by both the Lexington and Winchester limestones present very favorable conditions for springs and wells, and drilled wells usually obtain an abundance of water at depths less than 100 feet. Water found in either formation, however, below the level of the surface streams is occasionally salt and is in many wells sulphurous, sulphur water having been found in some wells 50 feet deep.

Outside of the Winchester limestone is the Eden shale, with the Garrard sandstone member occupying the upper 100 feet. The

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'den shale forms a narrow band north of the mountains and covers onsiderable areas between the headwaters of Salt and Chaplin vers and to the south and west of Perryville. The shale layers of ne Eden furnish small quantities of water, and the sandstones, which re somewhat better water-bearers than the shales, furnish fair quan-ties of soft water for both springs and shallow wells. The Eden hale furnishes no water for deep wells.

The limestones and shales of the Maysville formation occupy a arrow strip, 1 to 2 miles wide, along the northern edge of the moun-ains and some narrow belts along the large streams in the south-restern part of the county. In most localities these rocks furnish nough water for domestic and farm use. They contain few large prings, but small ones are numerous and shallow wells are uniformly uccessful. They might also yield water for deep wells.

The Panola formation includes blue shales and limestones, which re overlain by the Ohio shale. The principal exposures of these ormations in Boyle County lie along the northern side of the moun-ains and border the valleys of North Rolling Fork and Scrub Grass reeks. The formations are feebly developed, and few of the ex-osures exceed half a mile in width. At Johnson City, however, the lack shale occupies a strip a little over a mile wide. In some parts f the county the Ohio shale is less than 40 feet thick. The water upplied by these formations is abundant, but is usually highly min-ralized, alum, sulphur, iron, and magnesia being common constitu-nts. In one locality salt water has been obtained from the Ohio hale.

The Waverly shale covers a large part of the area south of the Louisville and Nashville and west of the Cincinnati Southern railroads, ts sandy beds forming the tops of the mountains. The thickness of the formation exceeds 300 feet in but few places in this county. The sandstone layers of the Waverly supply an abundance of soft water where they are exposed at the surface, and it is this formation that furnishes the numerous springs of so-called freestone water in the mountains. Few wells have been sunk in the Waverly, and deep wells in this formation would be unsuccessful.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies all of Boyle County and will probably yield flowing wells in some parts of Dix River gorge. The water from this formation is of the well-known "blue lick" type of the region.

DOMESTIC WATER SUPPLIES.

Springs, drilled or dug wells, and cisterns furnish the water for domestic supplies in this county. Underground water conditions are especially favorable in the valley of Salt River, where there are many drilled wells. In Perryville, for example, there are about 100

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drilled wells, ranging in depth from less than 25 to more than 10 feet, with an average depth of less than 50 feet. These wells obtai water from the Winchester and Lexington limestones. At Mitchells burg two drilled wells, about 100 feet deep, obtain water from th Panola formation, and springs and shallow wells in this formatio will in most localities yield sufficient water for farm use. Severa different kinds of mineral water are obtained from the Ohio shale a Junction City, Alum Springs, and Shelby City. At Mitchellsbur this shale supplies considerable white sulphur water, but the othe types common to the formation have not been found at this place.

Dug wells are common throughout the county, but they are gradu ally being abandoned in favor of cisterns or drilled wells—a chang which would appear to be most desirable, as the drilled wells an cisterns, when properly constructed and cared for, are much les likely to be contaminated by impure surface water than are the du wells.

BRACKEN COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Bracken County borders Ohio River in the southeastern part of th Blue Grass region. The altitude of Ohio River at the northwestern corner of the county is about 440 feet above sea level, and the highe parts of the county rise to a height of about 450 feet above the river. South of Brooksville there are some areas of level land, but elsewhere erosion has carved the surface into steep-walled valleys, separated by narrow divides.

The northern part of the county is drained by Locust Creek and other small tributaries of Ohio River. Licking River touches the southwest corner of the county, and the North Fork of the Licking forms the southern boundary and receives the drainage from nearly all of the southern half of the county. Its principal tributary within the county is Camp Creek. Kindale Creek, which heads near the southwest corner of Bracken County, crosses Harrison County and enters the Licking River north of Falmouth.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials of Bracken County consist of clays, yellow or reddish, and usually thin and stony on account of the great amount of erosion to which they have been subjected since the removal of the forests. In the northeastern part of the county, where the surface is nearly level, the residual clay is in places more than 3 feet thick. The glacial deposits of the county are restricted to the Ohio Valley, where they are represented by such materials as the conglomerate near Augusta. The terrace gravels rise to an altitude of 75 to 80 feet

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above the river, and have the same general character here as in other counties of the Blue Grass region. Where they rest on dense rocks which are free from open crevices the residual materials yield a little water to springs and wells; elsewhere they supply water to the crevices in the underlying rock.

The alluvial deposits along the streams furnish an abundance of hard water, which is usually obtained by sinking drilled wells. Many springs issue from the alluvium along the banks of the Ohio, and wells procure large supplies at depths ranging from 80 to 110 feet.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The surface rocks of Bracken County include the Lexington limestone, which is exposed in the stream beds and on the lower parts of the slopes, in most places less than 100 feet above the streams; the Winchester limestone, exposed along the main Licking River, North Fork, Ohio River, and along the lower courses of the tributaries which enter these streams; the Eden shale, which occupies the slopes of the valleys and covers a considerable area on the upland, the most extensive exposures being found near the southwestern corner of the county; and the Maysville formation, found capping the highest hills, covering considerable areas of the upland in the northeastern part of the county. The Maysville formation is represented in this county chiefly by the lower members, but some of the limestone beds which outcrop on the eastern edge of the county probably belong near the middle of the group.

The Lexington limestone will probably furnish no fresh water in Bracken County, but it may yield salt or salt-sulphur water.

Where the Winchester limestone is exposed in the valleys of the streams it furnishes moderate quantities of hard water. In most parts of the county, however, it will not yield fresh water, though deep wells may obtain from it salt-sulphur water.

In localities where it forms the surface rock the Eden shale yields moderate quantities of hard water to springs or shallow wells. Deep wells which penetrate this formation obtain either inadequate supplies or none at all.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies this county at depths ranging from less than 1,500 feet on the upland to about 1,000 feet in the Ohio Valley. This formation contains salt-sulphur water under sufficient head to give flowing wells in the valley of Ohio River and the lower parts of some of the large tributary streams. The Highbridge limestone, which rests on the St. Peter, will probably supply nothing but salt or salt-sulphur water in this part of the Blue Grass region.

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DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Water for domestic purposes is obtained in this county from springs, dug, drilled, or bored wells, and from cisterns, the cisterns forming the most satisfactory source of supply.

A few very successful wells have been sunk in the alluvium of the Ohio Valley, the only failure resulting from locating the well too near the valley wall, where rock was encountered. A drilled well at Cummins Brothers' mill furnishes a large supply of water which is very satisfactory for use in the boiler of the mill. At Brooksville several unsuccessful wells have been sunk, and it does not appear probable that much fresh water can be obtained by drilling. An oil well sunk on the outskirts of the town encountered a small amount of hard water near the surface and strong salt-sulphur water at a greater depth.

Dug wells from 20 to 30 feet deep and springs of moderate size are common on the upland, and they furnish an abundance of water during a wet season, but both springs and wells are apt to fail in dry weather. Some of the springs in the valleys of the small streams yield brackish sulphur water. Along the banks of the Ohio springs are numerous when the stream is low, but they are usually submerged during high water.

CAMPBELL COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Campbell County, lying between Licking and Ohio rivers, comprises the narrow belt of lowland along these streams and the upland area between them. The upland consists of a deeply dissected plateau with narrow interstream areas. Ohio River, where it borders the county, has an altitude of less than 540 feet above sea level, and the highest points on the upland are about 400 feet above the river. Licking River is somewhat higher than the Ohio, and the valleys of both streams have precipitous sides. Along the Licking, southwest of Alexandria, at a height of nearly 200 feet above the stream, is a rock terrace capped with a few feet of Tertiary sand containing pebbles of chert derived from the younger geologic formations to the south.

The principal streams of the county are Philips Creek, a tributary of Licking River, and Twelvemile Creek, a tributary of the Ohio. A number of smaller tributaries join each of the rivers. These tributary streams have very steep gradients, many of them descending 200 or 300 feet in a distance of 3 or 4 miles.

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GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The rock formations of Campbell County underlie a thin mantle of unconsolidated, yellow or reddish-brown soil. In some places near the Ohio River this material contains fragments of rock and is probably of glacial origin, but over most of the county it has been weathered from the underlying rock. The residual soil is largely clay over the shale areas, but over the limestone areas it has the texture of loam.

These residual clays contain considerable water, but they yield very little directly to wells or springs. They serve, however, a valuable purpose in storing moisture and feeding it to the crevices in the underlying rocks.

Alluvial terraces of sand and gravel with a maximum thickness somewhat exceeding 110 feet, are found along Ohio River, where they reach an altitude of over 550 feet above tide. The alluvium in the Licking Valley also consists of sand and gravel, but the percentage of sand is greater than along the Ohio Valley and the deposit is not so thick. A thin deposit of coarse alluvium containing fragments of limestone with some clay, is usually found bordering the small streams. Along Licking River the rock terraces carry a deposit of porous sandy gravel, which was probably at one time nearly continuous, but much of which has been removed by erosion, so that it now appears only in small isolated patches.

The alluvium of the Ohio Valley is very porous and contains a large amount of water. A number of wells obtain water from these beds at depths of 80 to 110 feet, and the height of the water in the wells usually varies with the stage of the river. The rise and fall of the water is most marked in wells which penetrate coarse gravel near the bank of the stream, and the fluctuations usually lag behind the corresponding stages in the river. Many springs emerge from the alluvium just above the level of the river. The water from these gravels is moderately hard, but the degree of hardness varies considerably.

The alluvium along Licking River supplies water to springs along the river bank, and it would also furnish water to wells. The quality of the water is practically the same as that in the sand and gravel of Ohio River. The alluvium of the small streams furnishes some water in wet weather, but the supply is likely to fail in periods of drought.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington and Winchester limestones are largely under cover in this county. Where exposed in the bottoms of the small valleys they supply moderate quantities of hard water, but where buried

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under the younger formations they usually furnish only brackish water, which may contain considerable hydrogen sulphide.

The Winchester is overlain by from 250 to 300 feet of shales, with occasional beds of limestone, which represent the Eden shale. These rocks form the lower slopes of the stream valleys and rise to the upland near the borders of the county, and furnish small quantities of hard water to shallow wells and springs.

Above the Eden shale are the interbedded limestones and shales of the Maysville formation, which make the surface rocks over a narrow belt in the center of the upland portion of the county. Near the center of the county the limestone beds of the Maysville are the predominant surface rocks.

The rocks of the Maysville formation furnish the water supplies for shallow wells on the upland. Underground channels are numerous, and hence underground water conditions are good; but near the rivers, where the more shaly portions of the lower part of the Maysville are at the surface, the underground channels are smaller and the water conditions less favorable. In the central part of the county rocks of the Maysville yield water to many good springs and wells, but outside the central area the springs are smaller and the wells as a rule obtain small supplies. All the water from the Maysville formation is hard.

The Highbridge limestone is under cover in this county, but if penetrated by deep wells it would probably yield nothing but strongly mineralized water.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies Campbell County at depths of 900 to 1,000 feet in the Ohio Valley and 1,400 to 1,500 feet on the upland. It yields a strong salt-sulphur water, under head sufficient to give flowing wells in the valleys of Ohio and Licking rivers and in the lower parts of the valleys of the small streams which enter these rivers.

CARROLL COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Carroll County is in the western part of the Blue Grass region, with the Ohio River forming its northern boundary. The upland surface of the county is a deeply eroded plateau with narrow divides and steep-sided valleys, the highest parts rising to an elevation of about 900 feet above tide or more than 450 feet above the Ohio. Along Eagle Creek, which forms the southeastern boundary of the county, is a well-developed rock terrace.

Kentucky and Little Kentucky rivers, which enter the Ohio in this county, have cut deep, narrow channels across it. The most important of the numerous smaller streams of the county are McCoots

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Creek, a tributary of Ohio River, and Whites Run and Eagle Creek, tributary to the Kentucky.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

A large part of the upland is covered by a few feet of heavy clay derived from the decomposition of the underlying rock, which usually contains much shale. On the upland west of the divide which separates the tributaries of Ohio River from those of other streams, the surface is mantled by glacial deposits consisting of residual clay mixed with fragments of limestone with occasional pebbles and bowlders of other rocks. East of Carrollton, in a gap in the rock ridge which separates the valleys of Ohio and Kentucky rivers, the till forms a well-defined ridge less than one-half a mile wide [a] which appears to be a moraine. This moraine presents a nearly flat top, which is apparently due to a capping of loess like silt. The residual and glacial materials furnish very little water directly to wells, but they serve a valuable purpose in storing water and supplying it to the crevices in the underlying rock.

A heavy deposit of alluvium, consisting of sands and gravels which were deposited by waters from the melting of the Wisconsin ice sheet, is found in the Ohio Valley and fills the valley to a depth of slightly more than 100 feet, its surface forming terraces which rise to a height of nearly 100 feet above the stream. Wells 80 to 120 feet deep obtain an abundance of water in this deposit.

Along Eagle Creek and Kentucky River are thin deposits of alluvial sands and gravel which rise about 80 feet above the streams. The alluvium of Kentucky River furnishes a large quantity of water at depths of 100 feet or less, but that along Eagle Creek is in few places more than 30 feet thick and furnishes only moderate quantities of water. The thin deposits of coarse alluvium found along smaller streams is in most places but a few feet thick, and it yields water only during wet weather. The water obtained from all the alluvial deposits is moderately hard, but it is suitable for domestic use, and along Ohio and Kentucky rivers it is used for industrial purposes.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Winchester limestone is exposed in the valleys of all the principal streams in Carroll County, occupying the lower slopes, and above the Winchester, reaching to the lower parts of the upland, is the Eden shale. Resting on the Eden shale are the limestones and shales of the Maysville formation, which cover all the higher parts of the

[a] Leverett, Frank, Glacial formations of the Erie and Ohio basins: Mon. U. S. Geol. Survey, vol. 41, 1902, p. 257.

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upland. The Maysville and Richmond formations of this county contain a high percentage of shale, except in areas south of the Kentucky River, where the upper part of the Richmond consists of several feet of massive limestone.

The Winchester limestone furnishes some fresh water for shallow wells located in the valleys, but over the greater part of the county it will furnish nothing but salt-sulphur water. The water of the salt-sulphur spring at Sanders, which comes from this formation, closely resembles the famous "Blue Lick" water but contains less mineral matter. This may be due to the entrance of surface water.

The Eden shale furnishes little water except near the surface, and wells and springs in this formation are apt to fail in dry weather.

The limestone layers of the Maysville and Richmond formations furnish water for the shallow wells and springs on the upland, the supply usually being ample for a farm, except in very dry weather. Most of the wells obtain water at depths less than 35 feet, and it is practically useless to sink wells deeper than 50 feet in the areas covered by these rocks. The water from the limestones of the Maysville and Richmond formations is hard, but is satisfactory for domestic use. The massive limestone of the Richmond formation supplies considerable water in many places.

Experience has shown that the Lexington and Highbridge limestones, when buried beneath the younger formations, as they are in Carroll County, furnish salt or salt-sulphur water, and it is useless to attempt to obtain fresh water from them.

The St. Peter sandstone, which should be reached at depths of 900 to 1,000 feet in valleys of the streams bordering this county, will furnish flowing wells of salt-sulphur water in the valleys of Eagle Creek and Ohio and Kentucky rivers. On the upland the St. Peter lies deeper, and the water does not have sufficient head to force it to the surface.

CLARK COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Clark County is situated on the southern edge of the Blue Grass region. The surface is greatly diversified, varying from the gently rolling, nearly level, areas in the western and northern parts, with the streams flowing in broad shallow valleys and the divides flat topped or slightly rounded, to the rugged area in the southeast corner of the county, where the mountains rise 300 to 400 feet above the level of the upland. Along the southern boundary of the county the surface is cut by the deep narrow gorges of the tributaries of Kentucky River, and local variations in relief are found as that river passes from areas of easily eroded rocks where the slopes are gentle to areas in which the rocks are more resistant and form vertical cliffs.

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The drainage of Clark County is divided almost equally between Licking and Kentucky rivers, the watershed which separates the two systems passing nearly east and west through Winchester. From the district north of this line the drainage is carried to Licking River through Stoner Creek, which heads a few miles east of Winchester. The principal tributaries of Stoner Creek in Clark County are Donelson Creek, Pretty Run, and Strodes Creek. The principal tributaries of Kentucky River within the county are Howards Creek, Twomile Creek, Fourmile Creek, and Upper Howards Creek. Boones Creek, on the western boundary of the county, and Lulbegrund Creek, on the eastern boundary, are important tributaries of Kentucky River which drain small areas of Clark County.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The unconsolidated materials consist of residual clays and loams on the shale and limestone areas of the upland and of alluvial sands and gravels in the gorge of Kentucky River. As in other counties of the region, the residual soils yield no water directly to wells, but they furnish considerable moisture to crevices in the underlying limestone. The alluvial sands and gravels in the gorge of Kentucky River would probably provide excellent supplies for shallow wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed in the walls of the gorge of Kentucky River and in the lower parts of the tributary streams in the southwestern part of the county. Where it appears at the surface in the southern part of the county it will supply moderate quantities of hard water for springs and wells, but elsewhere in the county it will yield only salt or salt-sulphur waters.

The Lexington limestone is exposed over large areas along Strodes and Stoner creeks and on the upland in the southwestern part of the county, and some small exposures are also found in the stream valleys south of Winchester. Where this limestone is at the surface it furnishes an abundance of hard water for springs and wells, but at depths of about 50 feet in the valleys and 100 feet on the uplands it furnishes salt or salt-sulphur water. In the northeastern part of the county the salt-sulphur water is encountered in some wells at a depth of less than 50 feet. Some of the springs in this formation in the northwestern part of the county are exceptionally strong, and most of the drilled wells have been successful.

The Winchester limestone occupies a narrow strip along the boundary of the Lexington exposures and covers a large area in the northwestern part of the county, and furnishes moderate quantities of hard

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water for springs and shallow wells. In wells exceeding 50 feet in depth the water is usually strongly saline, and in some of them it is sulphurous.

The Eden shale occupies a large area in the central and eastern parts of this county, the Garrard sandstone member reaching a thickness of more than 100 feet. The formation furnishes small quantities of hard water to shallow wells, but drilled wells obtain no water from it below a depth of 25 to 30 feet. Most of the springs in the Eden shale are weak, and many of them fail during dry weather.

Rocks of the Maysville formation cover a large part of the southeastern and eastern parts of the county, and the higher hills in the southeastern part of the county are capped by a deposit of sandy shales containing some beds of earthy limestone which may represent the Richmond formation. The Maysville and Richmond rocks furnish considerable water for springs and shallow wells, but few deep wells obtain any large supplies of water from them.

The Panola formation, which outcrops over a large area in the southeastern part of the county, consists of about 50 feet of limestone containing interbedded shale, in many places sandy, overlain by about 5 feet of yellow magnesian limestone. The limestone layers of the Panola yield in some localities considerable water for springs and shallow wells, but the water is usually strongly charged with magnesia.

The Ohio shale occurs in the same localities as the Panola formation, but the areas are somewhat more restricted. The Waverly shale is exposed in the southeastern part of the county, but its areal extent is small. The Ohio shale and the shales of the Panola formation furnish a large variety of mineral waters, the most common types being alum, chalybeate, and sulphur. In the eastern part of the county some of the springs from these shales supply medicinal waters for a health resort.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies Clark County and will probably yield flowing wells in Kentucky River gorge north of the large fault, and possibly in the region south of the fault. On the upland the water would come within 300 or 400 feet of the surface in but few localities. In this county, as elsewhere in the Blue Grass region, the water would be highly saline, and consequently unfit for domestic or industrial uses.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Clark County dip gently toward the southeast, the only important structural feature being the large faults in the southern part of the county. One of these extends from about a mile north of Ruckerville in a direction slightly south of west to a point about a mile north of Valley View. Kentucky River crosses this fault

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six times on the southern line of the county, and thus the fault plane is alternately in Clark and Madison counties. Near Ruckerville this fault is represented by a small fold that gives place to a fault with a gradually increasing displacement toward the west, until it reaches a maximum of nearly 400 feet near Cleveland.

Another fault begins at Kentucky River below Jacksons Ferry and extends northeastward into Montgomery County near Kiddville. The maximum displacement along this fault is less than that of other faults, but it amounts to nearly 300 feet. In both of these faults the rocks on the northern side of the fault plane have been lifted with relation to those on the south. In the fault first mentioned the Highbridge limestone on the north side of the fault has been brought to the level of the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale on the south, and in the other fault the upper part of the Lexington limestone on the north side reaches the level of the Garrard sandstone member on the south.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL SUPPLIES.

The water for Winchester, the only large city in Clark County, is taken from reservoirs on a small stream a few miles from the city, and the supply is ample for all the prospective needs of the community.

Many good springs are found in all parts of the county, the largest being in the northern half, but few of them supply more water than is needed for a single farm.

Drilled wells, ranging in depth from less than 50 to more than 125 feet, are numerous in the vicinity of the Lexington and Eastern Railroad junction and to the north and west of Winchester. At Winchester and eastward along the Lexington and Eastern Railroad salt and salt-sulphur waters predominate, while to the north and west of Winchester ordinary hard water is usually obtained. In the southern part of the county there are few drilled wells, though some were reported at Kiddville, where they obtain mineral water. The many dug wells in the county are not much used, except when other sources of supply fail.

FAYETTE COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Fayette County lies in the very heart of the Blue Grass region. On its southern boundary is the gorge of the Kentucky, and except near this river, where many of the streams have cut narrow channels 200 or 300 feet deep, the country is essentially a plateau with a gently rolling surface, presenting, however, considerable diversity. Variations in altitude of 50 to 100 feet within short distances are many,

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and the extreme range within the county is more than 500 feet, for there is fully that difference between the surface of the Kentucky and that of the highest parts of the upland.

The drainage of the entire county is into Kentucky River. That of the southeastern corner reaches the river through Boone Creek, that of the south-central part through East Hickman and Little Hickman creeks; and that of the north-central and northern parts through Elkhorn Creek, which is formed by the union of three branches—North Elkhorn, South Elkhorn, and the town branch—and which joins the Kentucky in the northern part of Franklin County. From the source of North Elkhorn Creek to the point where the water enters Kentucky River the distance is nearly twice as great as is the distance from the source of the same stream to Kentucky River on the south. The direction of the streams seems to have been established by the original slope of the surface of the Lexington peneplain and by the course of the underground drainage, which developed before the peneplain was uplifted. The divide between the northward and southward flowing streams extends from Brannon northeastward to Lexington, and thence southeastward past Chilesburg. The flat areas along this divide and along the divides between the other stream valleys form the catchment areas for underground streams. The best defined of these streams flows through Russell Cave, but there are many smaller ones. The presence of the underground channels is indicated by numerous sinks and springs.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The rocks nearest the surface in Fayette County are overlain by residual material, usually red or yellow, varying in thickness from a few inches to more than 25 feet, the average being probably 5 or 6 feet. On the Lexington and Highbridge limestones the soil is made up of the comparatively insoluble constituents of these rocks; on the Eden and Winchester formations it is made up in part of the insoluble constituents of the limestone layers and in part of the fragments into which the many shale layers of these formations break up on being exposed to weathering. The soils on the Lexington and Highbridge limestones are for the most part loamy, but those on the Winchester limestones and Eden shales usually contain a large amount of clay. In the residual clay on the Lexington limestone there are many nodules of chert arranged in bands, much as they were in the original rock. As the underlying limestone has been removed by solution the soil has settled, the most marked settlings taking place along the joints where the water circulated freely and the limestone was dissolved rapidly. This unequal sinking has caused the chert beds

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to bend down at the joints, leaving a series of arches over the heavy blocks of limestone. Because the solution along the joints was unequal the amount of downward curvature varies, and in some places, where the roof of a cavern has fallen, the chert is entirely gone.

Except in the city of Lexington, few wells obtain water from the residual material, but the material serves a valuable purpose in storing water and feeding it gradually to the underground streams in the limestone.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The rocks of Fayette County are all of Ordovician age, the formations ranging from the Eden shale down to and including part of the Highbridge limestone. The greater part of the surface is made up of the Lexington limestone, but the Winchester limestone lies at the surface over considerable areas in the northwestern and southeastern parts of the county. In the extreme southeastern corner the Highbridge limestone is exposed in an area a few square miles in extent. A strip of Eden shale several miles long and less than half a mile wide extends in a northeast-southwest direction through the center of the county. These rocks lie in an almost horizontal position, and except for the faults that have brought the Eden shale into contact with the Lexington limestone they have been subjected to very little disturbance.

The principal water-bearing formation in the county is the Lexington limestone, which supplies many springs, some of them of large size, and most of the drilled and dug wells. The waters of this limestone are of two kinds—hard waters, with short underground courses, yielded by the shallow wells and by practically all of the springs; and mineral waters, usually alkaline, many of them containing salt, sulphur, and other mineral matter in noticeable quantities, supplied by many of the drilled wells in different parts of the county. Of these the flowing well on the Hisle farm is a noteworthy example. Underground drainage is favored by the topography of the area near Lexington and in the north half of the county, and in these areas water is abundant; elsewhere it is found in smaller quantities, but there are few farms on the Lexington limestone area without at least one good spring, and some of the farms have a large number of springs.

The Highbridge limestone furnishes considerable quantities of water for dug and drilled wells and a few springs of moderate size, but its surface is too deeply dissected to allow the formation of large underground streams. In quality the water is practically the same as that in the Lexington limestone, and ordinary hard waters and mineral waters are most important.

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The Winchester limestone is of slight importance as a water bearer except in the southeastern part of the county, for the layers of shale separating the limestone beds prevent the formation of extensive underground channels. Shallow wells in this formation yield hard water, but some of the deeper wells penetrating it obtain salt-sulphur water.

The Eden shale is so dense as to be almost impervious, and the water supplied by it is always meager in quantity and often poor in quality.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies Fayette County, but the depth at which it would be reached is not certainly known. The horizon that supplies the flowing well at Frankfort was reached at a depth of 900 feet. In the Kentucky gorge, on the southern boundary of the county, the depth to this horizon would probably be less than 900 feet. It is doubtful if the St. Peter sandstone would furnish a flowing well in the Kentucky River gorge, and as the head of the water from the St. Peter is only about 580 feet above sea level, no wells drilled on the upland to this formation would flow. The water from the St. Peter is too highly mineralized for domestic or industrial uses, but it is considered valuable for medicinal purposes. Its composition is shown by the analysis of the water from the Old 76 distillery. (See p. 212.)

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL SUPPLIES.

The only public supply in the county is in the city of Lexington (see list on p. 85), but the private supplies of the stock farms rival the best city supplies in efficiency and in detail of construction. Many of the smaller farms provide water for stock by means of ponds constructed to retain surface water, but most of the large farms use underground water, either from springs or wells. In some places the spring water is merely impounded, but in others it is pumped to a tank from which it is distributed to the different parts of the farm. The wells in most common use are of the drilled type and range in depth from 30 to nearly 300 feet. The height to which the water rises varies greatly in different wells, and wide variations in the quantity and quality of the supply are also shown. The only flowing well noted in the county is on the Hisle farm.

The uncertainty of wind power has led to the adoption of the gasoline engine for pumping water on most of the large stock farms.

The water of the shallower drilled wells is apt to be hard, with much lime and magnesia and smaller quantities of other mineral compounds, while that of many of the deeper wells is alkaline, containing more or less salt and sulphur and other less noticeable ingredients. Although these general qualities are ascribed to the shallow and deep wells, respectively, it does not follow that all deep wells

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ıtain highly mineralized waters or that shallow wells never supply ›m. The difference appears to be based on the relation of the derground stream to the surface drainage. Attention is called to › chemical analyses (Nos. 24 and 25, p. 212) of the remarkable alka- e water of the well at the depot of the Cincinnati Southern Rail- .y in Lexington.

A few wells, ranging in depth from 15 to 30 feet, dug and blasted ;o the rock, are still used in this county to supply water for stock d domestic purposes. The water from these wells is always hard, e supply is apt to fail during periods of drought, and they are sub- :t to pollution by surface water. They can not therefore be garded as forming an entirely satisfactory source of supply. Most the rock wells extend down to the solid limestone, and as a rule e water seeps in from the earth or cracks in the rock, although in me wells a definite underground stream is encountered. A good :ample of this is furnished by a 15-foot well at Athens, in which .e water rises nearly to the top within a few hours after each rain ıd then gradually falls until it reaches its normal level with a depth ' 3 feet.

On most farms the water for drinking is obtained from cisterns, ıd on some of them the entire domestic supply is drawn from this ›urce. The cisterns are as a rule well cemented and many of them re provided with filtering devices. Chain pumps are in high favor ecause of the aeration resulting from the falling back into the well f much of the water raised. Such aeration is, however, of doubtful alue, and the use of chain pumps allows dust and insects to get ıto the water and increases the possibility of contamination. More ffective filtration and the adoption of pumps that will exclude for- ign matter are greatly to be desired.

Cisterns also form the chief source of supply for most of the small owns in various parts of the county. In some settlements of more han a hundred people only one or two wells may be in use.

In the city of Lexington, in addition to the public supply, many isterns and a few wells furnish water for domestic purposes. The langer of pollution of underground waters in a city like Lexington is great, and the use of such waters for domestic supplies can not be too strongly condemned. The underground drainage appears to con- verge toward the town branch of Elkhorn Creek, and the wells outside the city should be comparatively free from contamination by city sewage. If the custom of allowing city sewage to enter the under- ground channels were entirely discontinued, the quality of the under- ground waters would undoubtedly be improved; but the danger of pollution by surface drainage would still remain and the waters would probably never be entirely safe for domestic use.

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FLEMING COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Fleming County, located on the eastern edge of the Blue Grass region, includes on its eastern border a strip 6 or 8 miles wide belonging to the mountainous part of the State. The topography of this strip is rugged, the flat-topped mountains rising abruptly 400 to 500 feet above the valleys, which are from 1 to 2 miles wide. West of the mountains is a belt of country 10 to 15 miles wide whose gently rolling surface presents broad interstream areas separated by shallow valleys.

The southern and a large part of the western boundary of the county is formed by Licking River, which receives the drainage of the southern part of the county through Fox and Locust creeks and many smaller streams, and of the central part through Fleming Creek, which enters the river just west of the Robertson County line. These streams flow in valleys cut from 100 to 300 feet below the surface of the upland and separated by divides in many places only a few rods wide. The drainage of the northwestern part of the county reaches the Licking through Johnson, Elk, and Buchanan creeks, and that of the northern and northeastern parts enters the North Fork of the Licking through a number of small streams.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials of Fleming County vary with the geologic formations from which they were derived. On the Eden shale the soil is a thin, stony, yellow or reddish clay; on the rocks of the Maysville and Richmond formations brownish or reddish clays are found, which are usually thicker and more porous than the clays derived from the shale formations; on the Silurian and Devonian shales the deposits are dense, light-colored clays. The Silurian limestones decompose to a rather porous red clay. The Waverly shale occurs only on the slopes of the mountains and is covered with coarse débris which has fallen or been washed down the hillsides; the sandstone of the Waverly disintegrates to a light sandy loam, which is in most places very porous.

The residual materials furnish no water to wells or springs except where they rest on dense rocks like the Eden or Siluro-Devonian shales, but where underlain by limestone formations they may store considerable water, which is, in part, supplied to the crevices in the rock.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

Along the western edge of the county the Winchester limestone is exposed in the valleys of Licking River and its principal tributaries, but not far from Sherburne its eastward dip carries it below the

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drainage levels. In the valleys of the streams where it forms the surface rock this formation yields some hard water for wells, but in other parts of the county water obtained from it will contain salt and salt-sulphur compounds.

Along the streams and on the upland in the western part of the county the Eden shale forms the surface rock, but few of its exposures are more than 3 or 4 miles wide. This shale furnishes some water for springs and shallow wells, which are, however, apt to fail in dry weather. At depths of 30 feet or more below the surface it yields no water.

East of the exposures of Eden shale is a belt of limestone of the Maysville formation, which passes beneath the Richmond formation along a line extending from a point south of Tilton northeastward to about a mile east of Flemingsburg, and thence northward to the north line of the county. The eastern boundary of the Richmond formation follows Licking River from the east line of the county to a point near Wyoming, Bath County, and thence passes northward in a sinuous line west of Grange City, Millsboro, and Poplar Plains and east of Flemingsburg and Mount Gilead. The Richmond extends much farther east in the valleys than on the uplands, and some narrow bands or isolated exposures of it are found east of the line just mentioned. The limestones of the Maysville formation provide exceptionally good conditions for underground water and in most places furnish an abundance of hard water for springs and shallow wells. Drilled wells may encounter gas or water containing petroleum or hydrogen sulphide gas at depths of 60 to 150 feet. The rocks belonging to the Richmond formation as a rule present less favorable conditions for underground water than those of the Maysville, because of the high percentage of shale they contain; but most of the springs in this formation yield moderate amounts of hard water, and most of the shallow wells obtain good supplies.

Above the rocks of the Richmond formation and covering all the rest of the county except the mountainous areas are the shales and limestones of the Silurian and Devonian periods, consisting, in ascending order, of about 25 feet of yellow magnesian limestones containing beds of shale in the lower and upper parts, nearly 100 feet of blue shale, and 150 feet of black carbonaceous shale. In some localities a thin deposit of concretionary iron ore is found at the top of the lower shale bed, and at one locality about 5 feet of yellow magnesian limestone was observed at the base of the black shale, but neither of these deposits appears to be widely distributed in the county. Linney correlated the lower shales and limestones to within a few feet of the black shale with the Silurian; the black shale with the beds of limestone at the base he considered Devonian.[a] The blue shale of this

[a] Linney, W. M., Geology of Bath and Fleming counties: Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1886, pp. 67-77.

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series presents unfavorable conditions for underground water, though some wells derive a little water from the unconsolidated materials above it. The limestones usually furnish shallow wells with an abundance of hard water, commonly containing considerable magnesia. The black (Ohio) shale supplies many springs of highly mineralized water, usually containing either alum or sulphur.

Above the Ohio shale is a greenish, even-bedded sandstone, about 180 feet thick, with many interbedded shale layers. This sandstone caps the mountains, and being more resistant than the shale below, it prevents rounding of the slopes. The sandstone, with its interbedded shale, was called sub-Carboniferous sandstone by Linney[a] and Waverly shale by Campbell.[b] The Waverly shale yields an abundance of soft water, supplying the well-known "freestone" springs so numerous along the mountain sides. It is probable, also, that the spring water of the Ohio shale was originally absorbed by the Waverly shale and became mineralized after emerging from that formation during its passage through the joints in the shale.

The Lexington and Highbridge limestones and the St. Peter sandstone are deeply buried in Fleming County, but would yield salt and salt-sulphur waters to deep wells. The water from the St. Peter would probably rise nearly to the surface in the valley of Licking River at the western boundary of the county, but it is doubtful if surface flows could be obtained except near the northwest corner of the county, where a small area is less than 590 feet above sea level.

FRANKLIN COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Franklin County, which lies in the southern part of the Blue Grass region, inclu[illegible] t topographic provinces which coincide [illegible] different geologic formations. That [illegible] Kentucky River and south of a line [illegible]ntucky just north of the mouth of [illegible]rovince, with a gently rolling surface [illegible]unty, west of the river, is deeply dis- [illegible] separated by narrow ridges. In gen- [illegible] these provinces to the other is gradual. [illegible]ve a range exceeding 400 feet.

[illegible]is area from north to south, receiving [illegible]rough Elkhorn and Benson creeks and [illegible]rom the south line of the county to the [illegible] walls of the Kentucky gorge are pre- [illegible] the northern end of the county a well-

Fleming counties: Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1886, pp. 78, 79.
[illegible]. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

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defined rock terrace, from 80 rods to 1 mile wide, rises to an altitude of about 500 feet above sea level. Above this terrace the valley walls rise abruptly to the level of the upland. This broad terrace is well developed along Elkhorn Creek, where it reaches an altitude of over 600 feet above tide. Along the Kentucky south of the mouth of Elkhorn Creek, where the terrace may be observed at several points, it is as a rule less than one-half mile wide. In some places this terrace surrounds hills that have been separated from the upland by the erosion of the streams. Such isolated remnants of the upland may be seen at Bethel Church on Elkhorn Creek and at Gratz and Frankfort on Kentucky River. The separation of these hills from the upland appears to have taken place in part since the formation of the rock terrace, for the channels surrounding them have been excavated below the level of the terrace.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials on the limestone areas of the county comprise brownish or reddish loams derived from the decomposition of the underlying rocks; on areas underlain by shale they consist of stiff yellow or red clays. These materials furnish little water for wells or springs except where they are underlain by relatively impervious rock, and even in such places the supply is small and is apt to fail in dry weather.

Along Kentucky River and on the limestone terraces that border the principal streams are considerable areas of sandy alluvium which yield large quantities of water to springs. Few wells have been sunk in the alluvium in Franklin County, but those drilled obtained an abundance of moderately hard water at depths ranging from 50 to 80 feet. This deposit will furnish large quantities of water only in places where it extends below the level of the river; where it rests upon the limestone terraces the water escapes through channels in the rock.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed along Kentucky River from the southern line of the county to a point about 9 miles beyond Frankfort, where its dip carries it below water level. In localities where it forms the surface rock it furnishes hard water for shallow wells; but where it is covered by other formations it yields brines which are as a rule charged with sulphur.

The Lexington limestone forms most of the surface rock from the southern line of the county to Switzer and on the terraces along the principal streams, and is also exposed along Benson Creek from Kentucky River to the west line of the county. In most places it

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contains many water-bearing channels which supply an abundance of water for both springs and wells, and nearly all the large springs of the county get their water from this formation. Many of the wells sunk below the level of the surface streams, however, obtain salt or salt-sulphur water, and water of this character may be expected in the Lexington limestone where it is covered by younger formations.

A narrow strip bordering the exposures of Lexington shows the Winchester limestone, and the formation is also exposed in a large area east of Kentucky River in the southern part of the county. In most localities where it forms the surface rock the Winchester furnishes moderate quantities of hard water to springs and shallow wells; but wells which penetrate the limestone to depths below the level of the surface drainage obtain salt or salt-sulphur.

The Eden shale is exposed over a large part of the county west of Kentucky River and north of Elkhorn Creek on the east side of the river, and furnishes small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells. Farther below the surface, however, this rock is too dense to yield water.

The limestone of the Maysville formation may occur on some of the high hills near the Shelby County line, but it is not extensively developed in Franklin County.

The St. Peter sandstone lies at a depth of 790 feet in Kentucky River gorge near the southern line of the county and 900 feet at Frankfort. On the upland the maximum depth to this formation would probably be less than 1,500 feet. Flowing wells of salt-sulphur water can be obtained from the St. Peter wherever the altitude of the surface is less than 580 feet above sea level.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Franklin County dip slightly toward the southwest and present no interesting structural features except the faults in the northern and eastern areas. In the eastern part of the county are two faults which extend from south of Stamping Ground northwest into Franklin County. The area between these faults has been dropped so that the Eden shale is brought into contact with the Lexington limestone. Prof. Arthur M. Miller has informed the writer that there is another small fault west of Kentucky River in the northern part of Franklin County.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Dug or drilled wells, springs, and cisterns supply the greater part of the water used in Franklin County. The water supply of Frankfort is taken from Kentucky River, and as no cities are located on the river above that city the supply should be satisfactory. A large amount of sediment in the water renders it somewhat objectionable

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for some purposes, but this sediment might be removed at comparatively small expense by the use of a mechanical filter.

The alluvium of the Kentucky gorge formerly supplied water for a number of wells at Frankfort, 80 to 110 feet deep, but these wells have nearly all been closed in accordance with the advice of the health officers.

Drilled wells from 50 to 150 feet deep are numerous, and most of them yield excellent supplies, though the water of some of the deeper wells is sulphurous. In the vicinity of Jett there are nearly a score of drilled wells. At Frankfort drilled wells have been less successful, and some absolute failures are reported. The Murray well at Frankfort is 1,250 feet deep and encountered a strong flow of salt-sulphur water in the St. Peter sandstone at a depth of 900 feet. The water from this well was formerly sold for medicinal purposes, but the sales gradually diminished until the enterprise was abandoned. As the water undoubtedly has considerable value in the treatment of certain diseases of the organs of digestion and excretion it should find a ready market.

Many cisterns are used in the areas of the county underlain by the Eden shale, for the water furnished by this formation is in some places poor in quality, is meager in quantity, and the supply is apt to fail entirely in very dry weather.

GALLATIN COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Gallatin County occupies a narrow area between Ohio River and Eagle Creek in the northwestern part of the Blue Grass region. Except along the streams, where level strips of alluvium are found, the surface of the county is a deeply dissected plateau, with altitudes ranging from 445 feet above sea level at the Ohio River level to more than 900 feet on the upland. A rock terrace along the valley of Eagle Creek has an altitude of about 530 feet above sea level. Leverett[a] mentions an abandoned valley nearly 650 feet above sea level, which passes from Eagle Creek, 2 miles north of Glencoe, to Ohio River just north of Warsaw, and is closely connected with a similar valley which extends northward to the South Fork of Big Bone Creek.

A narrow belt on the east side of the county drains into Eagle Creek, but the principal drainage is into Ohio River through Stephens Creek, Craigs Creek, the South Fork of Big Bone Creek, and numerous smaller streams. All of these streams descend from the level of the upland to the Ohio within a very few miles, and most of the valleys have precipitous slopes.

[a] Leverett, Frank, Glacial formations of the Erie and Ohio basins: Mon. U. S. Geol. Survey, vol. 41, 1902, pp. 114-115.

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GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The glacial deposits in Gallatin County consist of patches of clay containing some pebbles, and are practically restricted to the area draining to Ohio River.

The residual materials that cover so large a part of the county are made up of yellow to reddish clays which have been derived from rocks containing a large percentage of shale, and hence they are usually heavy. Where the residual materials rest on the Eden shale they supply a little water to wells. They also feed water to underlying rocks from whose crevices the wells and springs of the upland draw most of their supplies.

The usual deposit of alluvium, which is here arranged in three terraces lying at altitudes of 450, 470, and 495 feet above tide, is found in the Ohio Valley. An alluvial deposit consisting of sand with a few pebbles occurs in the valley of Eagle Creek, and thin patches of alluvium were observed on the terrace bordering Eagle Creek and in the abandoned channels which extend from this creek to Ohio River and Big Bone Creek. The alluvium of the Ohio Valley supplies large quantities of moderately hard water at depths ranging from 60 to 110 feet, and a number of springs emerge from it along the banks of the river. The alluvium along Eagle Creek furnishes some water for springs and shallow wells, but the supplies from these sources are very little utilized.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington and Highbridge limestones are deeply covered by younger formations over the greater part of Gallatin County, though the Lexington is exposed along Ohio River in the vicinity of Warsaw. At such depths these formations furnish only salt or salt-sulphur water, unfit for any ordinary purposes.

The Winchester limestone occupies the lower slopes of the Ohio Valley and is also exposed along Eagle Creek on the east side of the county and in the valley of Big Bone Creek on the northern boundary. In the valleys of the streams where it is at the surface this limestone yields to shallow wells a supply of ordinary hard water, such as is commonly found in limestones; in localities where it is deeply covered, as over a large part of the county, its water is salt and as a rule contains sulphur.

The Eden shale occurs in the valleys of all the large streams and reaches well up toward the upland over a large part of the county. This formation yields practically no water to deep wells, and the moderate supply for shallow wells enters as a rule at or near the base of the unconsolidated materials.

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The lower members of the Maysville formation cover the higher parts of the upland in Gallatin County. These rocks contain much shale and the underground channels are small. Except in very dry weather, however, they supply sufficient water for farm use, most of the wells being less than 35 feet deep. Springs are numerous in this formation, and some of them flow during the driest seasons.

The St. Peter sandstone probably lies 700 to 900 feet deep in the valleys of the principal streams and would undoubtedly yield salt-sulphur water, such as it supplies elsewhere in the region, under sufficient head to flow in the valleys of Ohio River and Eagle Creek where they border Gallatin County.

GARRARD COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Garrard County is on the southern edge of the Blue Grass region, its northern boundary being formed by Kentucky River and a part of its western boundary by Dix River. The surface of the northwestern and central parts of the county is gently rolling, except near the boundaries, where the streams have cut deep, narrow gorges from 100 to 400 feet below the level of the upland; that of the northeastern part is deeply dissected by numerous streams, whose deep valleys are separated by narrow divides; and that of the southern end is diversified by mountains which rise abruptly to a height of nearly 500 feet above the level of the broad intervening valleys. Some of the finest blue grass land of the region is found in the northern end of this county.

The drainage of the eastern part of the county passes into Kentucky River through Paint Lick Creek; that of the central part reaches the Kentucky through Sugar, Davis, and Cane creeks and several smaller streams. The drainage of the western and northern parts of the county is to Dix River, chiefly through Boones, Drakes, and Coopers creeks.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials in Garrard County exhibit wide variation in texture, and consequently they differ greatly in water capacity in different parts of the county. On the Lexington and Winchester limestones and the limestones of the Richmond formation they are, as a rule, rather heavy clays, having high storage capacity, but for the most part they supply the water to crevices in the underlying rock rather than directly to wells. On the Eden and Siluro-Devonian shales the residual materials supply small quantities of water directly to springs and wells. On the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden

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and on the Waverly shale the residual materials consist chiefly of sand, and they absorb considerable moisture, which readily sinks into the underlying rock.

Narrow strips of alluvium, in some places more than 50 feet thick, consisting of coarse sand containing layers of chert pebbles, are found along Kentucky River. The alluvium supplies abundant water for springs. A well sunk into it across the river from Camp Nelson obtained water at a depth of 50 feet.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone reaches its maximum thickness of 400 feet in the northern part of the county across the river from Camp Nelson, and its upper layers are found near the top of the Kentucky gorge. It is exposed along the northern line of the county to a point about 2 miles above Camp Nelson and along Dix River nearly to the head of the gorge. Some excellent springs are found in this limestone along Kentucky River, and it might also yield water for shallow wells in the bottom of the gorge. On the upland, where it is covered by younger formations, it will yield no fresh water, but salt and salt-sulphur water can be obtained in it in some places.

The Lexington limestone is found in the Kentucky gorge above the Highbridge, and it forms the bottom of the gorge from the eastern end of the Highbridge exposure to the northeast corner of the county. It is also exposed along Dix River, in the valleys of Sugar and Paint Lick creeks, and over a large part of the upland in the western part of the county. This formation supplies water for springs along Kentucky River and in various places where exposed on the upland. Shallow wells on the upland also usually obtain an abundant supply of hard water, but deep wells drilled in it obtain highly mineralized salt and salt-sulphur waters.

The Winchester limestone forms part of the valley slopes in the northeastern part of the county and is exposed in a narrow band bordering the upland areas of the Lexington. Where it forms the surface rock it furnishes moderate quantities of hard water, but below the level of the surface streams and where it is covered by younger geologic formations its waters, as a rule, contain salt or salt and sulphur.

The Eden shale is exposed over a large area in the northeastern part of Garrard County and extends in a narrow band along the eastern edge of the Winchester limestone from about a mile east of Camp Dick Robinson southward to Dix River. The shale member of this formation yields small quantities of water to springs and shallow wells, but none to deep wells. The sandstone member also is in most places rather a poor water bearer, yielding little water except in localities where it is exposed at the surface. In the east-

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ern part of the county, however, some of the more sandy layers furnish considerable water for springs and shallow wells.

The Maysville and Richmond formations are exposed over a large area between the northern edge of the mountains and a sinuous line drawn from Paint Lick to Camp Dick Robinson, and they are seen also in the valleys of some of the streams in the southern part of the county. They include nearly 200 feet of interbedded limestones and shales and about 100 feet of sandy limestones and shales. It seems possible that the sandy shales and possibly some of the upper beds of limestone belong to the Richmond formation. In the south-central part of the county the limestones of the Maysville are in many places very pure and the beds are unusually thick. They contain many subsurface channels, which afford favorable conditions for underground water, springs are numerous, and shallow wells are uniformly successful. The water of some of the deeper wells is, however, brackish or sulphurous.

The rocks of the Richmond formation are more shaly than those of the Maysville, and underground water conditions are less favorable, but springs and wells deriving water from them nevertheless yield ample supplies for farm use.

The Panola formation is exposed in a narrow band on the northern edge of the mountainous district and along some of the streams within it, and it occupies areas of considerable size west of the mountains. The shales of the Panola yield little water, but the limestone layers carry large quantities of water containing lime, magnesia, and other inorganic material.

The Ohio shale forms a narrow belt along the mountainous area and appears on a few isolated hills in the southwestern part of the county. This rock is generally traversed by joints which admit large quantities of water, and consequently numerous springs and shallow wells are supplied by it. The water in this formation is everywhere highly mineralized—alum water, chalybeate water, and sulphur being the most common types furnished by it.

The Waverly shale occupies the tops of the mountains in the southeastern part of the county. It has a maximum thickness exceeding 300 feet. The shale beds of the Waverly contain very little water, but the sandstones which cap nearly all the hills contain abundant supplies of soft water, which emerges in springs at the top of the underlying shale.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies the entire county and will furnish flowing wells in the lower part of Dix River gorge and in the gorge of Kentucky River north of the large fault. Here, as elsewhere in the region, the water of the St. Peter would be of such quality as to unfit it for ordinary purposes.

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STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The only important structural features exhibited by the rocks of Garrard County are the faults which occur in the northern and southern areas. The west end of the Kentucky River fault enters this county just south of Camp Nelson and extends southwestward several miles to the point at which it finally disappears. The displacement along this fault in Garrard County is less than 200 feet. The existence of two faults is shown by Campbell [a] in the southeastern part of the county. The maximum displacement of one of these faults has brought the Waverly shale into contact with the Panola formation. The presence of faults at the base of Burdetts Knob was noted by Owen [b] during the first geologic survey of the State.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Springs and dug or drilled wells form the principal sources of water supply for all domestic purposes in Garrard County. Springs are everywhere numerous, and they present considerable variety in composition. Soft water is reported in the vicinity of Point Leavell and Buckeye and at various places in the mountains; sulphur, chalybeate, epsom, and alum springs are common along the northern side of the mountains, and an alum spring occurs at the foot of Burdetts Knob. Springs of ordinary hard water are found in the northern and central parts of the county, and in the southern part of the county are some magnesian springs.

Sufficient water for a farm is as a rule obtained by dug wells less than 35 feet deep. In the western part of the county and near Paint Lick, Hyattsville, and Cartersville are a number of drilled wells ranging in depth from 60 to 100 feet. Near Cartersville drilled wells obtain sulphur water at depths of 25 to 50 feet. At Lancaster a drilled well sunk to a depth of 1,100 feet in an effort to procure a supply for the city obtained a small supply of fresh water near the surface and a large flow of salt-sulphur water at a depth of several hundred feet. The supply of Lancaster is now taken from a small stream which receives no objectionable drainage, and the water is very satisfactory, but considerable water is still used from shallow wells. It is doubtful if any of the well water is as pure as the city supply.

GRANT COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Grant County is in the north-central part of the Blue Grass region. A narrow ridge, known as "Dry Ridge," with a maximum altitude of somewhat more than 950 feet, crosses the county from north to south

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.
[b] Owen, David Dale, Third Rept., Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1877.

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and forms the divide between the tributaries of Eagle Creek and those of Licking River. The divides between the smaller streams are as a rule somewhat lower, but have a nearly uniform height, which represents the approximate level of the plateau which has been dissected. The streams all flow in narrow steep-sided valleys which have been carved in the plateau.

Crooked, Fox, and Grassy creeks, tributaries of Licking River, receive practically all the drainage of the area east of Dry Ridge. Eagle Creek, which crosses the western edge of the county, receives the drainage of its western half. Its principal tributaries in Grant County are Tenmile, Clarks, and Grassy creeks.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

Residual soil formed by the breaking up of the underlying rock covers the surface of the county. Near the northern end of the county, where the original rock contained many limestone layers, the soil approaches a loam in texture, but farther south, where shales predominated, the decomposition product is a heavy clay. In but few places is the residual clay more than 3 or 4 feet thick, and in many localities it is only a few inches thick.

Small patches of alluvium occur along all the large streams, but it is for the most part coarse material which was derived from the decomposition of the rocks on the slopes. A rock terrace along Eagle Creek is covered by a thin deposit of sandy alluvium.

Both the alluvium and the residual clay store considerable water and supply it gradually to the underlying rock, but they yield little water directly to wells. An exception to this rule is found where these unconsolidated materials rest on dense shale, for in such places the water is obtained directly from the loose material or from its plane of contact with the underlying rock.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Winchester limestone is exposed in the valleys of Eagle Creek and several small streams, and where it is at the surface it generally furnishes good supplies of hard water. In the bottoms of the valleys, however, wells in this formation obtain a brackish sulphur water, and on the upland, where it might be reached by drilling deep wells, its waters would be salt or salt-sulphur in character.

The Eden shale is exposed over a small area of the upland near the southern end of the county and on the slopes of all the principal streams. Here, as elsewhere in the Blue Grass region, this formation affords practically no water, except near the surface where small cracks have formed in the rock. Moreover, the soil above the shale is so dense that it yields little water. For this reason springs are

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few and small and wells are not very successful in the areas of its outcrop.

The surface rocks over the greater part of the upland belong to the Maysville formation. The highest rocks of this formation that are exposed in the county are the heavy beds of limestone found north of Crittenden; south of Crittenden the lower and more shaly beds appear at the surface. The limestones of the Maysville near the northern end of the county favor the formation of underground channels whose presence is indicated by small sink holes. Farther south the rocks contain a much larger proportion of shale, and the underground channels are small. The soil over the more shaly areas affords but little water to the underlying rock, and consequently the underground supplies are limited. The water from these rocks is as a rule hard.

The Lexington and Highbridge limestones and the St. Peter sandstone might be reached by deep wells, but they would afford only salt or salt-sulphur waters. The water in the St. Peter is under sufficient head to rise to a height of nearly 600 feet above sea level, but this head would give flowing wells, if at all, only in the lowest part of the valley of Eagle Creek.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL SUPPLIES.

The springs of Grant County are nearly all small, and some of them fail in dry weather. The only important mineral spring is Gum Lick Spring, in the southeastern part of the county, which supplies a good quality of salt-sulphur water. This spring was formerly visited by many persons who carried the water away for drinking.

Few dug wells in Grant County are more than 35 feet deep, and in dry weather they yield very little water. None of the drilled wells sunk in this county have been successful. At Williamstown an attempt was made to procure water for the city by drilling a deep well; no fresh water was found, but strong sulphur water was encountered between 700 and 790 feet below the surface.

Cisterns form the principal source of supply for domestic use, both in the towns and on farms. In a few localities where the Eden shale forms the surface rock cistern water is also used for stock. The city of Williamstown depends upon cisterns and hand engines for fire protection. The cisterns are located at various points along the main streets and are filled with water collected from the roofs of warehouses, stores, and churches.

HARRISON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Harrison County is in the east-central part of the Blue Grass region. A strip of country several miles wide, bordering the South

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Fork of Licking River, has a gently rolling surface, with shallow valleys and rounded divides; but on the east and west of this area of slight relief the topography is rugged, the surface exhibiting steep-sided valleys separated by narrow divides. Rock terraces which lie slightly below the level of the upland border Licking River and its South Fork, and other terraces just above the level of these streams were observed at several localities.

Licking River forms part of the eastern boundary of the county, and the South Fork of the Licking flows northward through the center of it. Beaver Creek is the only large tributary of Licking River in this county. The greater part of the drainage is to the South Fork, which receives a number of large tributaries, the most important being Coopers Run, Grays Run, and Townsend, Twin, Crooked, and Indian creeks.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soils of Harrison County consist of loams on the areas of Lexington and Winchester limestones and clays on the Eden shale. The loams have an average thickness of about 3 feet, but the clays are in most places thin. These soils yield water only where they rest on dense shales.

A deposit of sandy alluvium, 10 to 20 feet thick, is found in many places on the rock terraces bordering the river and supplies an abundance of water for shallow wells. On the upper terrace are narrow deposits of the sandy alluvium belonging to the Irvine formation, which furnish small quantities of water in some localities; but the Irvine is not, as a rule, an important water-bearer.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone is exposed along the valleys of Licking River and its South Fork and over much of the area of rolling topography of the upland, and where it forms the surface rock it yields an abundance of water for springs and wells. Where it is reached below the levels of the surface drainage, however, it may supply salt-sulphur waters, such as are obtained by many of the drilled wells in this formation.

The Winchester limestone is exposed in a narrow band bordering the Lexington outcrops and furnishes moderate quantities of hard water. In the southwestern part of the county this limestone supplies some salt-sulphur water in springs and shallow wells. A well sunk near Smitsonville obtained a weak flow of sulphur water in this formation. The water rises about 4 feet above the surface, and the well yields less than 1 gallon per minute.

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The Eden shale appears at the surface on the upland near the western boundary of the county, where it occupies a strip nearly 10 miles wide, and also on the divide between Licking River and its South Fork. It supplies small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but none for deep wells.

The Highbridge limestone is not exposed in Harrison County, and wells sunk to it would probably obtain only highly mineralized water.

Wells drilled to the St. Peter sandstone would probably procure flowing water in some parts of the valley of the South Fork of the Licking, but, as elsewhere in the region, the quality of the water would unfit it for ordinary uses.

DOMESTIC WATER SUPPLIES.

Dug or drilled wells and cisterns are used to obtain water for domestic purposes in this county. Few of the shallow wells exceed 35 feet in depth, and the amount of water which they yield depends on the nature of the rock in which they are dug. Drilled wells which yield water enough for a farm are common in many localities. The quality of the water varies with the depth of the well, many of the shallower wells obtaining hard water and the deeper wells sulphur water. The depth to the sulphur water varies, however, with the location of the wells, being about 50 feet in the valleys and over 100 feet on the hills. In areas where the Eden shale forms the surface rock cisterns form the principal source of supply.

HENRY COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Henry County lies near the western edge of the Blue Grass region, south of Kentucky River, whose gorge here presents two steep slopes separated by a rock terrace at an elevation of about 500 feet above sea level. Near the Kentucky gorge the surface of the upland is deeply dissected by many small streams and is practically all reduced to slopes. Most of the divides are but a few rods wide, and the intervening valleys are, as a rule, narrow and steep sided. A few miles back from the Kentucky the surface is gently rolling, with shallow valleys and rounded divides, and topography of this type prevails throughout a large part of the county. The range in altitude within the county is about 200 feet.

Nearly all of the drainage of Henry County passes into Kentucky River, which receives the waters of three streams of considerable size—Mill, Sixmile, and Drennon creeks—and of many small tributaries. Streams flowing to Salt River drain a small area near the southern boundary of the county, and the drainage of an area along the western boundary of the county enters Harrods Creek and Little Kentucky River, whose principal tributary in Henry County is Sulphur Creek.

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GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soils of Henry County are, as a rule, heavy clays on the areas underlain by Eden shale, but on the other formations they are lighter and in some localities they are loamlike in texture. The soils yield moderate quantities of water only where they rest on the Eden shale.

Strips of alluvium, consisting of sand containing some layers of gravel, occur in the gorge of Kentucky River, and in some places a thin layer of alluvium also rests on the rock terrace which borders the river. It is evident that these isolated patches represent the eroded remnants of a deposit which once covered the terrace. The alluvium of the Kentucky gorge supplies some good springs along the river, and it would doubtless yield an abundance of water for wells. Some of the springs at Drennon Springs rise through this alluvium, but the water is probably derived from the Lexington or Winchester limestone.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone underlies the terrace which borders Kentucky River and is exposed in the gorge of the river from the Franklin County line to Drennon Springs, occupying the lower parts of the gorge and rising to about the level of the terrace along the valley for some distance north of the southern line of the county. It contains numerous sink holes and supplies several large springs of hard water. A short distance back from the river this limestone dips under the younger formations, and where it is thus covered it will yield no fresh water. In some places in this county both the Lexington and Highbridge limestones yield salt-sulphur waters when penetrated by deep wells.

The Winchester limestone lies above the Lexington and extends a short distance farther down the stream, but it is exposed only in the gorge of the Kentucky and the lower parts of some of its tributaries and does not rise to the level of the upland. In the areas of its outcrop it yields moderate quantities of hard water, but elsewhere in the county it may yield mineral waters.

The Eden shale outcrops on a small area of the upland near Kentucky River and extends some distance back from the river along the principal streams. Where it lies at the surface it supplies moderate quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but over a large part of the county it is buried beneath the rocks of the Maysville formation and will yield practically no water.

The Maysville and Richmond formations are found over a large part of the upland, underlying nearly all of the area of rolling topography, and they supply water for many perennial springs. Sufficient

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water for a farm can generally be obtained by wells 25 to 50 feet deep. A few unsuccessful deep wells have been drilled in Henry County.

Near the western line of the county is a narrow ridge which is underlain by the blue shales and yellow magnesian limestones of the Panola formation. Because of the small area of its outcrop the Panola is not important as a source of underground water.

The St. Peter sandstone will supply flowing wells in the gorge of Kentucky River. The water will be of the highly mineralized type usual in this formation.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Henry have a general northwesterly dip of a few feet to the mile, which was produced by the arching that formed the Jessamine dome. The uplift appears not to have been accompanied by any great amount of local disturbance in this county, though some minor folds and displacements have been observed at Drennon Springs.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Henry County has a number of "never-failing" springs, but few of them are large. Springs are commonly used for stock, but some of them also serve household purposes. At Drennon Springs, an important health resort located on Kentucky River, the most important are the sulphur and salt-sulphur springs. Both black and white sulphur springs are reported. At Eminence a chalybeate spring supplies a moderate quantity of water.

Most of the wells of Henry County are shallow, ranging from 20 to 35 feet in depth. Such wells form a satisfactory source of water for domestic use only when they are carefully guarded from pollution. Considerable water is used from these shallow wells both in the towns and in the country. The few deep wells drilled in Henry County have not been very successful.

Both Eminence and Newcastle could procure surface water for municipal supplies by constructing reservoirs on small streams, but underground supplies of suitable quality are not available. This should not, however, be considered a misfortune, for a careful comparison of the best surface and underground supplies of the region indicates that the surface waters are more desirable than those derived from either springs or wells.

JESSAMINE COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Jessamine County lies in the great bend of Kentucky River near the southern border of the Blue Grass region. Its surface is gently rolling except near the southern and western boundaries, where the

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Kentucky and its tributaries have cut deep channels, and altitudes range from less than 500 feet above sea level in the Kentucky gorge to over 1,000 feet in the highest parts of the upland. Where the streams cross the limestone formations the walls of their valleys are generally nearly perpendicular, but where they flow through shales and shaly limestones the slopes are gentler.

The drainage of the county reaches Kentucky River through Hickman and Jessamine creeks and several smaller streams, and a small area in the northern part of the county is drained by the southern branches of Clear Creek, which unites with the Kentucky in Woodford County. All the streams flow in deep narrow gorges and have very high gradients, making the descent from the upland to the river within a few miles.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The upland of Jessamine County is covered by a mantle of yellow or brownish-red unconsolidated material which has been formed by the decomposition of the underlying rock. On limestone areas this material has the texture of a loam, but on areas where the original rock contained a large proportion of shale it is chiefly a dense clay. Although the residual clay has in some places a thickness of 20 feet or even more, its average thickness probably does not exceed 5 or 6 feet. The soils furnish little water directly to wells, but they have a high storage capacity and feed their supply of water slowly to the crevices in the underlying rock. The loam stores less water than the clay, but it generally contains some free water which is available for the underground channels.

Sandy alluvium occurs in narrow strips along Kentucky River and yields water for numerous springs. It would doubtless also furnish an abundance of water for wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The apex of the Jessamine dome is located in this county, and the oldest rocks of the region are exposed at Camp Nelson, where Kentucky River passes near the crest of the dome. These rocks belong to the lowest division of the Highbridge limestone. The entire thickness of the Highbridge in Jessamine County is about 400 feet, and the exposures are restricted to the valleys of Kentucky River and its principal tributaries. The Highbridge furnishes large quantities of hard water to springs and to most of the shallow wells, but deep wells and a few of the shallow ones obtain either salt or salt-sulphur water.

The Lexington limestone forms the surface rock over the greater part of the county, overlying the Highbridge limestone without

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apparent unconformity. The maximum thickness of this limestone is about 200 feet, but the thickness over a large part of Jessamine County probably falls much below the maximum. Where it outcrops at the surface it contains many underground channels and large quantities of hard water. Nearly all of the springs and shallow wells over a large part of the county north of Hickman Creek are supplied with water from this limestone. The wells which penetrate this formation below the level of the surface drainage as a rule find salt or salt-sulphur waters.

The Winchester limestone is exposed along the Kentucky River gorge and on the south side of Hickman Creek, in the southern part of the county, and occupies a long narrow strip and several isolated patches on the upland in the northeastern part of the county. Where it is at the surface it yields moderate quantities of hard water to springs and shallow wells. In the southern part of the county it would be penetrated only by deep wells which would be apt to obtain salt and sulphur waters.

The Eden shale occurs over a large part of the upland between Hickman Creek and Kentucky River, and appears also as a small isolated patch in the northeastern part of the county. In this county the upper portion of the Eden consists of sandy shales and sandstones, which were mapped as the Garrard sandstone by the early workers of the Kentucky Geological Survey. The shale beds of the Eden furnish little water, but some of the limestones contain crevices which supply small quantities of moderately hard water for wells and springs. Some water is also obtained at the contact of the residual clay with the underlying rock. The Garrard sandstone member of the Eden is in most places not porous enough to yield much water, but the residual soil formed from it locally furnishes considerable soft water for both wells and springs.

The St. Peter sandstone will supply flowing wells in the valleys of the large streams north of the Kentucky River fault in this county. On the upland the water will not reach the surface, as the head is only sufficient to cause the water to reach an altitude of about 590 feet above sea level. South of the Kentucky River fault few wells have been drilled to the St. Peter, and definite information as to the head of the water encountered by these wells is not available. It appears probable that the faulting has produced a displacement of the St. Peter which might interrupt the movement of the water.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The only marked structural feature in this county is the Kentucky River fault, which extends along the valley of Hickman Creek, in the southern part of the county. There are really two faults, one enter-

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ing near the southeast corner of the county and extending southwestward nearly to its western boundary, and another beginning a few miles south of this first fault and running southwestward into Garrard County. The maximum displacement along these faults is probably about 400 feet. At one point near the southeast corner of the county it was sufficient to bring the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale into contact with the Highbridge limestone.

UNDERGROUND DRAINAGE.

The presence of caverns along Kentucky River and numerous sink holes and springs on the upland indicate that the underground drainage is very extensive. Some of the sink holes are several acres in extent, and many of the springs give rise to streams of considerable size. The large springs, as a rule, emerge at the heads of small gullies rather than along the river. This peculiar location of the springs is explained by the fact that the gully represents merely the portion of the underground channel where the roof has fallen. Sinking Creek, in the northeastern part of the county, affords an excellent example of a surface stream which enters an underground passage.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Springs and dug or drilled wells supply water for domestic and industrial purposes. One of the largest of the many large springs is Overstreet's, which supplies water enough to run a small mill, and another large spring is utilized at Union Mills.

Dug wells are numerous, but they are not extensively used. Drilled wells have been successful in some localities, but a number of dry holes are reported at Nicholasville, Keene, and Wilmore. Many of the drilled wells have found sulphur water at depths of 50 feet or more, but the amount of sulphur is commonly not great enough to render the water unfit for domestic use. At Union Mills a well sunk in the Highbridge limestone to a depth of 283 feet obtained a little fresh water between 30 and 40 feet below the surface and several supplies of salt-sulphur water at greater depths. At 200 feet the driller reported a stream of this water which was strong enough to remove the pulverized rock produced in drilling.

Nicholasville has the only municipal supply in the county. The water, which is taken from wells located on the edge of a reservoir, probably comes in part from the reservoir. The wells were sunk because some of the consumers objected to the surface water, but the installation of a filtering plant would probably have been a greater improvement.

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KENTON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Kenton County occupies a long, narrow area in the northern part of the Blue Grass region, extending northward to Ohio River and eastward to Licking River. Its surface is a plateau which has been deeply trenched by the tributaries of the Ohio and Licking rivers, and the upland areas, which are comparatively level, rise to a height of 900 feet above tide, or more than 500 feet above the Ohio.

The northwestern corner of the county drains into the Ohio through Dry Creek and several other small streams. Bank Lick Creek, which flows diagonally across the northern part of the county and enters Licking River at Latonia, receives the draniage of the central part of the county, and the southern end of the area drains to Licking River through Cruises and Grassy creeks and several smaller streams. All of these streams have high gradients, most of them making the descent from the uplands to the rivers within a few miles.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

A thin mantle of unconsolidated material covers the rock formations. Near the Ohio this loose material is of glacial age and consists in part of sand and in part of clay, containing fragments of limestone and other rocks. Resting on the glacial drift are 2 or 3 feet of loess-like silt, which is also of glacial age. On the upland the glacial drift has an average thickness of less than 10 feet and a maximum thickness of about 20 feet. In the Licking Valley, near Latonia, the drift appears to be somewhat thicker than on the upland. Although the sands of the glacial drift are of small extent, they would probably yield some water for shallow wells at a few localities. The bowlder clay and the overlying silt do not yield water directly to wells, but they are sufficiently porous to absorb some water which they feed to the underlying rocks.

South of the area of glacial drift the unconsolidated material consists of yellowish or reddish clay, in most places less than 5 feet thick, derived from the underlying rock. This clay is porous enough to absorb considerable moisture, but it does not afford sufficient water at any one place to supply a well.

The alluvium of Kenton County consists of terraces of sand and gravel along Ohio River, which rise to a maximum height of about 550 feet above sea level. The thickness of these and similar deposits along Licking River is from 80 to 120 feet, and they yield large quantities of water at depths of 60 to 110 feet. The water is moderately hard, and in the vicinity of Covington contains some sulphur. This

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sulphur may be supplied by the decomposition of the organic matter in the alluvium or by the sulphur water which comes from the rocks which form the floor of the valley. The alluvium in the Licking Valley should have a thickness of 30 to 50 feet, but few wells have been sunk in this deposit and its exact thickness is unknown. In other parts of the Blue Grass region similar deposits yield large quantities of moderately hard water.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The oldest rocks in Kenton County outcrop in the channel of the Ohio between Covington and Ludlow. The exposure consists of about 50 feet of interbedded limestones and shales, at the top of which is a wave-formed bed of limestone containing fragments derived from the underlying rock. These interbedded limestones and shales are believed by E. O. Ulrich to be the equivalents of the lower part of the Lexington limestone. Over all the upland portion of the county the Lexington and Highbridge limestones are deeply covered by younger formations, and under such conditions they supply only salt water, which will in some places be sulphurous.

Above the Lexington limestone and occupying the lower slopes of the valleys are about 300 feet of dark-colored shale belonging to the Eden formation. This shale supplies practically no water for wells, though small quantities of water are in some places obtained from the talus which rests on the valley slopes.

The upland is underlain by rocks belonging to the Maysville formation. In the southwestern and northern parts of the county these rocks are shaly and supply only small quantities of water, but elsewhere the uplands are capped by limestone beds of the formation, which furnish ample supplies of water for farm use. The numerous springs found on the upland derive their water from these limestone beds. Along Ohio River the springs emerge near the tops of the bluffs, where the limestone layers rest on beds of shale.

In this county the St. Peter sandstone lies 800 or 900 feet below the surface in the Ohio Valley and 1,300 to 1,400 feet below the surface of the uplands. It yields a strong salt-sulphur water, which will rise to the surface in places having an altitude of 590 to 600 feet above sea level. Wells drilled in this formation at Covington and Latonia obtained good flows.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Dug wells are still used extensively in Kenton County; in many of them the supply is augmented by permitting rain water from the roof to flow into the well. In some instances water is hauled from a nearby spring and poured into the well. Cisterns are an important

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source of water for domestic purposes, and they are gradually supplanting the wells.

No deep wells have been drilled on the upland, but driven and drilled wells are numerous in the Ohio Valley. These wells range in depth from about 80 to 120 feet and procure large supplies of water for domestic and industrial uses. Here, as elsewhere in the valley of the Ohio, the water near the river is apt to contain less inorganic matter than at some distance from the stream. Water for city supplies is obtained from Ohio River and is regarded as satisfactory for most purposes.

MADISON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Madison County is situated on the south side of Kentucky River in the extreme southern part of the Blue Grass region. A large part of the county is a broad plateau, deeply cut by narrow, steep-sided valleys near Kentucky River and along the western boundary. In the central part of the county is a belt, 5 to 10 miles wide, in which stream valleys are shallow and the surface is gently rolling. The extreme southern part of the county includes a rugged area, characterized by irregular ridges rising nearly 500 feet above the level of the plateau and separated by broad, level-floored valleys. The slopes of many of these mountains are so precipitous that their ascent is very difficult.

The drainage of Madison County goes to augment Kentucky River. Red River, which receives the drainage of the southeastern part of the county, flows eastward and joins Station Camp Creek, a tributary of the Kentucky, in Estill County. Paint Lick, which flows along the western boundary of the county, receives the drainage of a narrow strip near that boundary. Silver and Tates creeks drain the western and Otter and Muddy creeks the eastern part of the county.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The unconsolidated materials in Madison County consist of rather dense clays, derived from the limestone and shale formations; of loams, derived from the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale and the sandstone of the Waverly shale; and of alluvial sands and gravels in the gorge of Kentucky River.

The residual soils furnish a small amount of water for springs and shallow wells on the areas underlain by shale, but elsewhere they furnish practically no water. The alluvial sands and gravels of the Kentucky gorge furnish an abundance of water for springs along the river bank, and they would doubtless also furnish water for wells.

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CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed along Kentucky River in the four bends which lie north of the Kentucky River fault. Although the upper part of this limestone lies near the top of the gorge, it does not extend out upon the upland. The Lexington limestone is exposed in the same localities as the Highbridge, and it forms also the lower part of the gorge from the last crossing of the fault above Boone Ferry to the northwestern corner of the county, and the lower parts of the valleys of Silver Creek and Paint Lick to the vicinity of Cartersburg. Both the Highbridge and Lexington limestones supply considerable water to springs and shallow wells in the valleys of the streams; but on the uplands they are buried by younger formations, and under such conditions they will yield only salt or salt-sulphur water.

The Winchester limestone is exposed in a narrow area surrounding the Lexington, but it does not rise to the level of the upland except near Kentucky River. It furnishes moderate quantities of hard water where it is exposed at the surface, but where it underlies younger formations its water is generally brackish and somewhat sulphurous.

Outside the area of the Winchester limestone is the Eden shale, its upper portion including 70 to 130 feet of sandy shales and sandstone—the Garrard sandstone member. The lower part of the Eden outcrops in the valleys of the streams in the northern and western parts of the county, and the Garrard sandstone member reaches the level of the upland in the same areas. The Eden shale supplies small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but deep wells do not as a rule obtain water in this formation. The Garrard sandstone member supplies more water than the shale member, but it contains so large a proportion of clay that it is unimportant as a water horizon.

The Maysville formation underlies a large part of the rolling surface of the upland. East of Richmond some of the higher hills are capped by about 50 feet of green sandy shales, which may represent the Richmond formation. The limestone beds of the Maysville present favorable conditions for the occurrence of moderate quantities of water, but conditions somewhat less favorable are afforded by the Richmond rocks. A number of good-sized springs occur in the limestones of the Maysville, and shallow wells are ordinarily successful in both the Maysville and Richmond formations.

The blue shales and heavy-bedded yellow limestones of the Panola formation, as mapped by Campbell,[a] occupy considerable areas in the eastern and southern parts of the county. The shales of the lower part

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

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of the Panola supply practically no water, but the limestone beds generally furnish enough water for domestic use. As the limestones of this formation are magnesian, much of the water contains magnesia.

The Ohio shale, which in this county has a thickness of 110 to 150 feet, is exposed in many places above the limestones of the Panola formation and it generally rims the mountains. It supplies an abundance of highly mineralized water for springs and shallow wells, the most common types being alum, sulphur, and chalybeate waters.

The sandy beds at the top of the Waverly shale, which caps the mountains in the southern part of the county, yield an abundance of soft water, and numerous springs emerge from these sandstones where they rest on the shale beds.

Along the southern line of the county is a small and unimportant area of later Mississippian limestone.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies the entire county and will probably supply flowing wells in the gorge of Kentucky River north of the large fault. It is possible that a flow might also be obtained in some of the deeper stream valleys south of the fault. The water from this formation is so highly charged with salt and sulphur that it is unfit for ordinary uses.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Madison County dip gently toward the southeast and present no important structural features except the faults which have produced displacements of the Ordovician formations. The major fault of the region—the Kentucky River fault—crosses the northern part of the county. Kentucky River crosses this fault eight times on the northern boundary of the county, and thus the fault plane is alternately in Madison and Clark counties. The maximum displacement in Madison County, as given by Campbell[a] is 400 feet, and this has brought the Highbridge limestone to the same altitude as the Garrard sandstone member of the Eden shale. The Richmond folio shows also two small faults in the southern part of the county which are roughly parallel to the direction of the Kentucky River fault. East of Richmond is a fault which is almost at right angles to the other faults of the region. None of these faults are of great magnitude, the maximum displacement having brought the Ohio shale into contact with the limestone of the Maysville formation.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL USES.

Both surface and underground waters are used in Madison County.

Richmond obtains its water supply from a small stream. Attempts to get water by drilling wells in the city have not been successful.

[a] Campbell, M. R., Richmond folio (No. 46), Geol. Atlas U. S., U. S. Geol. Survey, 1898.

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One well, sunk to a depth of nearly 1,800 feet, is said to have obtained water highly charged with sulphur.

Many good springs are found in various parts of the county. Between Kentucky River and Richmond and for some distance eastward most of the springs yield moderately hard water. Sulphur springs occur at Boonesboro and at various points in the area of the Ohio shale, and this shale also furnishes springs of epsom, alum, and chalybeate water. Springs of soft (freestone) water are found near Elliston and at various points in the mountains, and Berea College has an excellent water supply derived from such springs.

Dug wells 20 to 35 feet deep are common on the upland, and an ordinary well affords sufficient water for a household. Besides the wells at Richmond, a number of wells have been drilled at Berea and Wallacetown. Few of these wells exceed 50 feet in depth and most of them yield sulphur water. A few wells have been drilled in other parts of the county, but these as a rule have not found large supplies of fresh water.

MASON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

This county borders Ohio River at the eastern edge of the Blue Grass region. The surface is a deeply dissected plateau, with a range of altitude exceeding 450 feet. The amount of dissection varies considerably, being greatest near the large streams and diminishing rapidly a short distance from these streams. In the southern part of the county variations in altitude are smaller and the slopes gentler, and another area of rolling topography occupies a strip several miles wide between Maysville and Germantown. In the Ohio Valley alluvial gravels form flat terraces which rise about 80 feet above the river.

The northern part of the county drains into Ohio River through Limestone Creek and a number of other small streams. The North Fork of Licking River, which flows westward through the central part of the county, receives the drainage of a wide area. Johnson Creek, a tributary of the Licking, receives several small tributaries from the southern part of the county.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The upland of Mason County is covered by a deposit of residual material varying in thickness from 6 to 8 feet and in character with the nature of the underlying rock. On sandy shales the material is a loam; on denser shales a heavy clay, and on the limestones clay or loam, as sand or clay were prominent constituents of the original rock. These residual materials furnish little water directly to wells, but they

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store considerable moisture, which they feed slowly to crevices in the underlying rocks.

The terraces of the Ohio Valley consist of 80 to 120 feet of coarse sand and gravel. These deposits furnish an abundance of moderately hard water.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Winchester limestone is exposed at the foot of the bluff bordering the Ohio Valley from the Bracken County line southward beyond Maysville, along the North Fork of Licking River, and along some of the tributaries of both the Ohio and the Licking. Where it is exposed in the valleys of the streams it furnishes, as a rule, moderate quantities of hard water. Saline and sulphur springs are also found in this formation at several localities. No deep wells have been drilled in the Winchester on the upland, but it is quite certain such wells would not find fresh water.

The Eden shale forms a large part of the valleys of the principal streams and extends out upon the upland in the western part of the county. The formation is more sandy here than in the more northern counties, but it does not contain enough sand to be classed as a sandstone. It yields small quantities of hard water to both springs and shallow wells, but no water to deep wells.

The Maysville formation is most typically developed in this county. It forms the surface rock over large areas and is well exposed in the vicinity of Maysville, where the entire formation is represented. The limestones of the Maysville as a rule furnish an abundance of hard water for springs and shallow wells, and the drilled wells of the upland usually obtain water in these rocks.

The Richmond formation is at the surface over a small area extending from Ohio River east of Maysville to the southern line of the county. In this county the lower part of the Richmond consists of sandy shales with some thin beds of limestone; the upper part is generally more calcareous and contains a number of beds of limestone. The rocks of the Richmond supply less water than those of the Maysville formation, but the quantity is usually sufficient for farm use.

The tops of the highest ridges and hills in Mason County are capped by gray cherty limestones and blue shales belonging to the Panola formation. Where the shales are at the surface this formation yields only a small supply of water, but where the limestones are exposed enough water for a farm can usually be obtained.

The Lexington and Highbridge limestones and the St. Peter sandstone are in this county buried beneath younger formations and will yield only salt or salt-sulphur water. The well-known "Blue Lick" water of the St. Peter should be reached at a depth of less than 1,000

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feet in the Ohio Valley, and it would flow at the surface. Flows could also be obtained in the valleys of the smaller streams where the altitude of the surface does not exceed 580 feet above sea level.

MERCER COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Mercer County is located near the southwest corner of the Blue Grass region, on the west side of Kentucky and Dix rivers, which here flow in narrow gorges with perpendicular walls. The difference between the altitude of the Kentucky and the higher parts of the upland is more than 400 feet. Near the rivers the upland is deeply trenched by a number of small streams, but a few miles back the slopes become gentler and the variations in altitude smaller, as a rule not exceeding 100 to 200 feet. In the western part of the county the surface is more rugged, the slopes being moderately steep and differences in altitude amounting to 200 feet or more.

The eastern edge of the county drains into Kentucky and Dix rivers through a number of small streams less than 5 miles long. The principal stream within the county is Salt River, which, flowing northward, separates the area of low relief from that of more rugged topography. This river, which unites with the Ohio south of Louisville, flows within a few miles of the Kentucky. In this county the divide between the tributaries of the two streams is in few places more than 4 miles from the Kentucky. The southwestern part of the county is drained by Chaplin River, the chief tributary of Salt River in the Blue Grass region.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIAL.

The upland portion of the county is covered with a mantle of residual material, which varies in texture from a loam to a clay. The loams occur where the material was derived from limestone and the clay where the original rock contained a large amount of shale. The residual materials furnish very little water for either springs or wells, although in general the water conditions are more favorable in localities where the soils are loamy than where clays are found, and in a few places, as at Harrodsburg, the loam may supply considerable water during a wet season.

Narrow strips of sandy alluvium, which supply large quantities of water to springs on the river bank, occupy the wider parts of the gorge in the Kentucky River valley. The few wells that have been sunk in this formation have obtained an abundance of water.

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CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone outcrops in the gorges of Kentucky and Dix rivers and along the lower courses of some of the tributaries of these streams, but it does not reach the level of the upland. Near Highbridge it is about 300 feet thick, but its northward dip carries its lower portion below the level of Kentucky River in this county, and at the northern boundary the thickness exposed does not exceed 150 feet. In the river gorges and in some of the creeks where it forms the surface rocks the Highbridge furnishes ordinary hard water for springs, but wells which penetrate it below the level of the surface streams as a rule encounter salt or sulphurous waters. On the upland this limestone lies from 150 to 500 feet below the surface, and wells sunk to it will not obtain fresh water.

The Lexington limestone outcrops along Kentucky and Dix rivers, forms the surface rock on the upland near these streams, and is exposed in the valleys of Chaplin and Salt rivers and over considerable areas east and northeast of Harrodsburg. Where it forms the surface rock it appears to afford conditions unusually favorable for underground water; springs are numerous, very few wells have been unsuccessful, and many of the wells obtain large supplies. Water encountered in this limestone below the level of the surface drainage is, as a rule, salt and may be sulphurous.

The Winchester limestone is found on the highest parts of the divide between Kentucky and Salt rivers, where it furnishes an abundance of hard water for springs and shallow wells, and it also yields small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells in the valleys of Chaplin and Salt rivers. Many of the wells that penetrate this limestone below drainage levels obtain salt-sulphur water. It is probable that some of the sulphur springs found in the county come from this formation.

The Eden shale outcrops on the divide west of Salt River, but it yields very little water and this only in small springs or shallow wells, which are apt to fail during dry weather.

Near the western edge of the county is a belt capped by rocks belonging to the Maysville formation, but they contain here so large an amount of shale that they yield little more water than the Eden shale. Near the northwestern part of the county, however, they furnish fair supplies for a number of shallow wells.

The St. Peter sandstone underlies the county at depths of from 700 feet in the gorge of Kentucky River to 1,100 feet or more on the upland, the depth being least near the southeast corner of the county and diminishing toward the north and west. This formation will yield flowing wells of salt-sulphur water in the gorges of Kentucky and Dix rivers and of some of the other streams at altitudes of less than 580 feet above sea level.

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NICHOLAS COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Nicholas County is situated in the east-central part of the Blue Grass region. Along its western side is a belt of gently rolling upland, with shallow valleys and rounded interstream spaces, but the rugged topography of the rest of the county shows differences in altitude amounting in many places to 200 to 300 feet, the areas of level land consisting of winding divides, as a rule, only a few rods wide.

Licking River, which flows along the east edge of the county, receives the drainage of a strip of land a few miles in width, but the drainage of the greater part of the county enters Hinkston Creek, a stream which forms part of the southern boundary. The streams of Nicholas County are all small—few of them exceeding 6 miles in length—and they flow in narrow V-shaped trenches whose slopes are in many places too steep for cultivation.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials of Nicholas County include heavy loams on the Lexington and Winchester limestones and heavy clays on rocks belonging to the Eden shale and the Maysville formations. These soils furnish little water to wells except where they are underlain by impervious rocks.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington and Winchester limestones are exposed in the valley of Licking River and on the upland near the western edge of the county, and they underlie nearly all of the areas of rolling upland. In the western part of the county they furnish an abundance of hard water for springs and shallow wells; the Lexington, as a rule, yields somewhat more water than the Winchester, but sufficient water for a farm can be obtained from either formation. Wells sunk in these formations below the level of the surface streams are apt to find salt-sulphur waters.

The Eden shale forms the surface rock over a large part of the upland and furnishes small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells but none for deep wells. The water is moderately hard, but is entirely satisfactory for domestic use.

The Maysville formation is represented in Nicholas County by a series of interbedded limestones and shales which cap the higher hills in the south-central part of the county. The formation, as a rule, affords somewhat more favorable conditions for the occurrence of underground water than the underlying Eden shale, and in this

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county it furnishes moderate quantities of hard water for springs and shallow wells.

The Highbridge limestone and the underlying St. Peter sandstone yield some salt-sulphur water for deep-drilled wells in this county. The St. Peter will supply flowing wells in the valley of Licking Creek, below Upper Blue Lick Springs, where the altitude of the river is 596 feet above sea level.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

The Upper and Lower Blue Lick Springs of Nicholas County furnish a large amount of excellent salt-sulphur water. Bottling works have been established at both of these springs and a great deal of the water is placed on the market. At the Lower Blue Lick Spring a hotel has been opened for the accommodation of those who prefer to use the water at the spring.

On the upland, springs are of moderate size and most of them yield hard water. In some localities they furnish water for domestic use, but ordinarily they are used only for stock.

Dug wells 15 to 30 feet in depth are common, but they are little used except during dry weather when other sources of supply fail. Drilled wells have been sunk at a few localities, but they have, as a rule, obtained water too highly mineralized for ordinary use.

Carlisle is the only city in the county large enough to warrant the installation of a public supply. Underground water suitable in quality and sufficient in quantity is not available for such purpose, but a surface supply might be obtained by constructing a reservoir on some of the small streams near the city. As none of these streams flow during dry weather, a large reservoir would be needed.

OLDHAM COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Oldham County is in the western part of the Blue Grass region, and Ohio River flows along its border. In the southeastern part of the county the streams flow in shallow, gently sloping valleys, separated by rounded divides which in few places exceed 100 feet in height. Farther west the valleys are narrow and steep sided and the interstream spaces are for the most part flat. The relief increases toward Ohio River, and the descent from the upland to the river is in most places abrupt, the difference in altitude between the river and the upland amounting to more than 350 feet.

Southeast of La Grange the surface drains to Floyds Fork of Salt River, the principal tributaries of the stream in Oldham County being East, North, and Rodmans forks. Harrods Creek, the chief tributary of the Ohio in this county, heads in Henry County and flows southeastward, joining the Ohio below the Oldham County line. The Ohio

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also receives several small tributaries in this county, the largest—Patton Creek—being less than 10 miles long.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The western half of the county is covered by a few feet of reddish till, containing numerous pebbles of chert and limestone, with occasional fragments of granitic rock; the eastern half is covered by a thin deposit of residual material, varying in texture from loam to clay. The residual materials are not important as a source of water for either wells or springs. The alluvium of the Ohio Valley will furnish an abundance of moderately hard water at depths of 60 to 100 feet, but, as many of the people who reside in the valley prefer cistern water, few wells have been sunk in this deposit.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

Rocks belonging to the Maysville and Richmond formations are exposed in the valleys of all the large streams and occupy considerable areas on the upland in the eastern and northern portions of the county. In the eastern part of the county these rocks supply numerous springs and shallow wells. Few of the wells and springs yield large quantities, but in many localities the springs do not fail even in the dryest weather. The most successful wells are less than 40 feet deep. The upper part of the Richmond formation in Oldham County comprises over 40 feet of heavy-bedded calcareous rock, resembling sandstone and containing many concretions.

The gray magnesian limestones of the Panola formation present very favorable conditions for the occurrence of underground water in Oldham County. Springs in this formation are numerous, the most important being the Anita and Royal Magnesian springs, and drilled wells obtain water at depths of 40 to 60 feet. The water is usually found at the top of the shale beds which underlie the limestones. The average yield of a single well is about 10 gallons a minute. The quality of the water is shown by the analysis of the water from Anita Spring. (See p. 211.)

The Eden shale will supply little water in Oldham County.

The Highbridge, Lexington, and Winchester limestones and the St. Peter sandstone are deeply buried in Oldham County. The limestone formations may furnish saline or saline-sulphur water when reached by deep wells. The St. Peter will supply flowing wells of salt-sulphur water in the Ohio Valley. A well drilled at La Grange about twenty years ago obtained a flow of slightly sulphurous saline water. The exact horizon from which the water was obtained is not known, but from the fact that the well was about 1,200 feet deep it seems probable that the water may come from either the Lexington or the Highbridge limestone.

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OWEN COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Owen County is in the west-central part of the Blue Grass region. Topographically, it comprises a gently rolling upland area in its central part, with broad, flat-topped divides and narrow, shallow valleys, and elsewhere more rugged areas, deeply trenched by narrow valleys separated by winding ridges. A narrow rock terrace extends along the valleys of Kentucky River and Eagle Creek, and at Gratz an abandoned channel of the Kentucky stands at about the same level as the rock terrace. This channel evidently represents the course of the Kentucky at the time of the formation of the terrace; in changing to its present course past Lockport the river evidently followed the channels of Sixmile Creek and some of its tributaries.

The Kentucky forms the western boundary of the county and receives all of the drainage, chiefly through Eagle, Clear, Severn, and Big Twin creeks. Eagle Creek, whose principal tributaries are Caney, Stephens, and Brush creeks, crosses the western edge of the county and forms the northern boundary.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soil of Owen County is chiefly clay, as a rule very thin on the Eden shale, but having an average thickness of 2½ to 3 feet where rocks of the Maysville formation form the level areas of the upland. These soils are not important as a source of water.

The terrace along Kentucky River and Eagle Creek has in most places a thin coating of sandy alluvium, which should supply some water for shallow wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone is exposed in the gorge of Kentucky River from the Franklin County line to Drennon Springs, in Henry County. The Winchester limestone outcrops in the gorges of Kentucky River and Eagle Creek and extends a short distance back from these streams along their principal tributaries. Both of these limestones furnish hard water in a number of the streams, and saline springs emerge from them at several places in the southern part of the county. Over a large part of the county the Winchester, Lexington, and Highbridge limestones are deeply buried by younger formations and will not supply fresh water.

The Eden shale outcrops along the valleys of the principal streams and on the upland in the southern part of the county and furnishes small quantities of water for springs and for wells 30 to 35 feet deep.

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These rocks are, however, too dense to yield water except near the surface.

Rocks belonging to the Maysville formation occupy a large part of the upland surface of the county and yield considerable moderately hard water for shallow wells—in most of the wells sufficient for a farm. The best springs in this formation are in the central part of the county, where the formation contains some heavy beds of limestone. Some of the best wells and springs of the Maysville formation are found near the city of Owenton, and the possibility of obtaining an underground supply for the city has been discussed. None of the wells in the vicinity are, however, strong enough to afford more than a small part of the water that would be needed for the municipal supply. Deep wells would doubtless obtain an abundance of water, but it would be too highly mineralized for ordinary use, and if a city supply is to be installed the water must be taken from a stream. One of the spring-fed branches near the city would probably furnish the most satisfactory supply of surface water.

Flowing wells of strong salt-sulphur water may be obtained from the St. Peter sandstone in the gorge of Kentucky River, in the valley of Eagle Creek where it borders the west side of the county, and in the lower parts of some of the other tributaries of the Kentucky.

PENDLETON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Pendleton County is situated in the northeastern part of the Blue Grass region. Its surface presents many steep-sided valleys separated by narrow, winding divides, the surface of the upland being so uneven that roads ordinarily follow either divides or valleys. Two rock terraces—the upper but little below the level of the upland and the lower less than 50 feet above the level of the stream—extend along the valleys of the rivers. The lower terrace is in but few places more than a mile wide, but the upper terrace is much wider.

Licking River is joined by its South Fork near the center of the county, and these two streams receive the entire drainage, but the tributaries of both are small. The most important of the tributary streams are Kindale, Grassy, Fork, Lick, and Crooked creeks. All of these except Kindale Creek head in Grant County and flow eastward across western Pendleton County. Kindale Creek rises in Bracken County, and flows northwestward to join the Licking north of Falmouth.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soils of Pendleton County consist of thin deposits of heavy clay, which furnish practically no water except where they rest on the dense shales of the Eden formation.

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On the lower terrace in the river valleys are deposits of sandy gravel which locally exceed 30 feet in thickness; one record of drilling in the northern part of the county gives the alluvium a thickness of 80 feet, but this is probably too great. The upper terrace bears thin patches of sand and gravel belonging to the Irvine formation. The alluvium supplies an abundance of water for springs along the river banks and should be a satisfactory source of water for wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone is exposed in this county along the rivers, where it occupies the bottoms and lower slopes of the valleys. It furnishes an abundance of hard water in the valleys of the Licking and its South Fork. No deep wells have been drilled for water in this formation and none have penetrated the Highbridge limestone; but water obtained in either of these formations at depths greater than 75 to 100 feet, would probably be highly mineralized.

A strip of Winchester limestone is found above the Lexington. This formation, however, occurs not only along the river bottoms, but extends considerable distances up the valleys of the principal tributaries. It furnishes moderate quantities of hard water where it is at the surface, and the formation also supplies some springs of salt-sulphur water in the valleys of the streams. Where the Winchester is buried beneath the Eden shale its water would be too highly mineralized for ordinary uses.

Above the Winchester limestone, forming most of the surface of the county except in the valleys of the large streams, is the Eden shale, which supplies small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells but will yield no water to deep wells.

Narrow belts of limestone belonging to the Maysville formation cap the divides in the western part of the county. These rocks contain some excellent springs and supply considerable water for shallow wells.

Flowing wells may be obtained from the St. Peter sandstone in the valley of Licking River. The well at Boston Station obtains its supply from this formation. The water contains a large amount of salt and is highly charged with hydrogen sulphide. It has proved entirely satisfactory for stock, but is unfit for other uses.

ROBERTSON COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Robertson County is near the southeast corner of the Blue Grass region, on the east side of Licking River. Its surface is a deeply dissected plateau, whose steep-sided valleys, 100 to 300 feet deep, are separated by narrow divides with even, sinuous crests. An

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abandoned stream channel passes near Kentontown and joins Licking River Valley below Claysville. The rock floor of this valley is in many places covered with 5 to 10 feet of sand containing a few pebbles of chert.

The surface drains toward the west or north into Licking River or its North Fork. The principal stream, Johnson Creek, crosses the county south of Mount Olivet, and there are also many small streams, most of which are less than 10 miles long.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soil of Robertson County is a yellow or reddish clay, which as a rule forms a thin deposit on the uplands. On the slopes it contains many slabs of limestone which have been left as the soil has washed, and in some parts of the county these slabs are so numerous that they furnish enough rock to construct the pikes. The soil yields very little water for either springs or wells.

Some small, unimportant patches of sandy alluvium are found in the valleys of the large streams. The alluvium of the Licking Valley supplies water for some springs, and wells sunk in it would probably be successful. A few wells in the abandoned stream valley near Kentontown procure a plentiful supply of soft water from sand and gravel at depths of 10 to 15 feet.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone outcrops in the valleys of the streams in the western part of the county, but a short distance back from the main streams it is overlain by younger formations, and its eastward dip carries it down to the water level near the eastern boundary of the county. Where it is exposed in the stream valleys wells and springs obtain from it considerable potable water, but elsewhere it will yield only salt and salt-sulphur waters. Such waters might also be encountered in deep wells near the river.

The Winchester limestone appears at the surface in a narrow area near Licking River and its tributaries, where it yields moderate quantities of water for springs and shallow wells. In other parts of the county it is buried beneath younger geologic formations and may be expected to furnish only salt or salt-sulphur water. Some of the deeper wells in the area where the limestone is exposed may also encounter mineral water.

The Eden shale forms the surface rock over a large part of the county, and in most places it furnishes small quantities of water for shallow wells and springs, though the supply is apt to fail in very dry weather. It supplies no water to deep drilled wells.

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The lower members of the Maysville formation may cap some of the higher parts of the county, but these members contain a high percentage of shale, and their water capacity is about the same as that of the Eden shale.

The Highbridge limestone will furnish only salt or salt-sulphur water in this county.

Wells sunk on the upland of the county would probably reach the salt-sulphur water of the St. Peter sandstone at a depth of about 900 feet. In the valley of Licking River flowing wells might possibly be obtained from this formation, as the bed of the river was found by aneroid measurement to have an altitude of 580 feet above sea level. As aneroid measurements are subject to considerable error, the determination of altitude is questionable.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

Dug wells, ranging in depth from 10 to 25 feet, supply water for domestic use over a large part of the county, but their use in the towns is attended by some risk, as they are liable to be more or less contaminated by surface drainage.

Drilled wells have been sunk at Mount Olivet and Piqua. At Mount Olivet two wells, 107 feet deep, were drilled, one of which obtained a moderate supply of mineral water and the other was dry. At Piqua a drilled well encountered sulphur water at a depth of about 75 feet.

The springs of Robertson County are all small, and many of them can not be relied upon to furnish water during very dry seasons. The original Lower Blue Lick Spring was located on the north side of Licking River in this county, but this spring ceased to flow some years ago, and attempts to obtain the water by drilling have been unsuccessful. A spring with water of similar character on the other side of the river is now utilized by the company. In the table of analyses (p. 210) the first three samples were taken from the old spring and the fourth and fifth from the one now in use.

SCOTT COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Scott County is situated in the south-central part of the Blue Grass region. A gently rolling surface, with variations in altitude of 100 to 200 feet, characterizes the southern part of the county, the interstream areas showing, as a rule, slight relief and being marked by numerous sink holes. In the northern part of the county the surface has been greatly dissected and presents steep-sided valleys separated by narrow divides. The highest points in the county are nearly 1,000 feet above sea level; the lowest are between 600 and 700 feet

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above; and the maximum variation is therefore between 300 and 400 feet.

The northern part of the county drains into Eagle Creek and the southern part into Elkhorn Creek. Several tributaries of Licking River head near the eastern boundary and receive the drainage of the eastern part of the county.

The underground drainage of the southern part of the county is extensive, and some of the underground streams may be traced for a distance of 3 or 4 miles by the lines of sink holes that mark their courses. As a rule, an underground stream emerges in a spring at the head of a small branch.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The unconsolidated materials of Scott County form a thin mantle of residual soil, consisting of 3 to 8 feet of brown or red loam on areas underlain by limestone, and 3 feet or less of yellow or red clay where the underlying rock is shale. These materials yield little water except where they rest on a dense rock, like the Eden shale, and even in such places the supply is small.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Lexington limestone is the surface rock over nearly all the southern part of the county, its outcrop coinciding very closely with the area of well-developed underground drainage and rolling topography. The northern boundary of this limestone is a sinuous line extending in an east-west direction across the county about 5 miles north of Georgetown. The formation furnishes an abundance of hard water for springs and wells, and it contains all the large underground streams that supply the important springs of the county. Below drainage levels, however, the water contains salt, and in some places sulphur, and where the limestone is covered by younger formations it will yield no fresh water.

A narrow band of Winchester limestone occurs along the northern border of the area of Lexington limestone, and another extends from the western boundary of the county near Switzer to Greendale in Fayette County. Where this rock is at the surface it furnishes moderate quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but below drainage levels the water is brackish and is, as a rule, charged with hydrogen sulphide. In localities where it is covered by the Eden shale the water found in it will probably contain both salt and sulphur.

The Eden shale outcrops in the northern part of the county and over a small area in the western part. The rocks of this formation have been deeply eroded and their outcrop coincides very closely with the area of rugged topography. In some places this shale

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yields small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but it yields no water for deep wells, and the supply obtained by the shallow ones is apt to fail in dry weather.

The Highbridge limestone lies about 200 feet below the surface in the southern part of the county, but it is probably nearly 500 feet below the tops of the highest hills in the northern part. It will yield only brine in this county.

The St. Peter sandstone, with its salt-sulphur water, underlies the entire county, but flowing wells are precluded by the altitude of the surface. In the lowest parts of the county the water should rise to within less than 100 feet of the surface. At Georgetown and Rogers Gap strong salt-sulphur was reported in two deep wells at depths of 700 and 900 feet, respectively. At Georgetown this water was said to have sufficient head to rise within 15 feet of the surface. If this is the water from the St. Peter sandstone, it was encountered at a less depth and rose higher than the water from the same formation at Frankfort.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Scott County have a general dip toward the north, and there are some evidences of slight local disturbances. The most marked structural features are found southwest of Stamping Ground, where two nearly parallel faults have brought a block of Eden shale into contact with the Lexington limestone. Near Georgetown a slight deformation has produced a small fold.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES.

Dug wells are used to a limited extent in Scott County, but they are rapidly being supplanted by drilled wells except in the areas underlain by the Eden shale. Most of the drilled wells obtain their waters from the Lexington and Winchester limestones at depths of 50 to 125 feet. The depth to the sulphur water in Scott County varies locally, but it is in few places more than 100 feet.

The Georgetown water supply, which is taken from a large spring on the edge of the city, is the only large underground supply of the region. The fact that this water is usually turbid after a rain suggests that some water enters the underground stream through open sinks. The spring is supplied by a good-sized underground stream, and the amount of water is usually much greater than is needed by the town. Many other large springs are found in various parts of the county.

Sadieville and Stamping Ground have drilled wells belonging to the towns, and these wells supply water for the families that do not use cistern water. At Newtown the underground water conditions appear to be very favorable, and a large number of successful wells have been drilled.

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SHELBY COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Shelby County is on the western edge of the Blue Grass region. Except near its eastern boundary, where some of the streams have cut narrow valleys 200 to 300 feet below the level of the upland, it has a gently rolling surface, with variations in altitude exceeding 100 feet in but few places. Near the northwestern corner of the county is a high ridge which forms the divide east of Floyds Fork, and a high hill, known as the "Jeptha Knob," is situated near the village of Claysville.

A small area near the eastern margin of the county drains to Kentucky River through Sixmile and Benson creeks, whose principal tributaries are Backbone Creek (to Sixmile) and Collets Creek (to Benson). The rest of the county is drained by tributaries of the North Fork of Salt River, the largest being Big Beech, Guests, and Brashears creeks, and Floyds Fork. The southeastern corner of the county, south of Harrisonville and Southville, is drained by the Middle Fork of Crooked Creek and Big Beech Creek and its tributaries; a large area east of Shelbyville and south of Christiansburg is drained by Guests Creek and its tributaries, Jeptha and Lick creeks and Breton Run; and the central part of the county is drained by Brashears Creek, to which Clear and Big Bullskin creeks are tributary. Floyds Fork of Salt River receives no large streams from Shelby County, but the drainage of the northern part of the county reaches it through several small streams. Plum Creek, a direct tributary of Salt River, drains the southeastern corner of the county.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual soils of Shelby County resemble those of Fayette County, ncluding dense red or yellow clays on the areas of Eden shale and loams rather than clays on the limestones of the Maysville and Richmond formations. The residual soils from the Eden shale furnish small quantities of water during wet weather. In a few localities the soils on the Maysville formation contain so much water that tile draining is necessary, and in such places they should furnish some water for wells.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge, Lexington, and Winchester limestones underlie the entire county, and the Lexington and Winchester are exposed near Graefenburg in the valley of Benson Creek. The Winchester limestone appears also in the channels of several other streams near the eastern edge of the county. Where these limestones are at the surface sufficient hard water for a farm is usually obtainable, but in some

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places they yield salt-sulphur water like that of the mineral spring at Graefenburg. These formations might be reached by deep wells sunk on the upland, but the water of such wells would probably be saline or saline-sulphur in character.

The Eden shale forms the surface rock over a belt 2 to 6 miles wide along the eastern boundary of the county, and outcrops also in the valley of Brashears Creek and in the valleys of Guests Creek and its principal tributaries. In the eastern part of the county this formation supplies small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but farther west it is covered by younger rocks and is not water bearing.

Rocks belonging to the Maysville and Richmond formations occupy nearly all of the surface west of the exposures of Eden shale and furnish moderate quantities of hard water for springs and shallow wells. The undergound water conditions appear to be most favorable in the western half of the county, but perennial springs occur in all parts of the area where these formations are at the surface.

The Panola formation caps the ridge east of Floyds Fork in the nothwestern part of the county. On Jeptha Knob, and near the northwest corner of the county, it furnishes ample supplies of hard water for farm use. A cavern containing a stream of water is reported on Jeptha Knob.

The St. Peter sandstone will supply an abundance of water for deep wells in this county, but it is improbable that the water will flow at the surface. The quality of this water is shown by the analysis of the water from the Old 76 distillery at Newport (p. 212). The water is too highly mineralized for domestic or industrial uses.

STRUCTURAL FEATURES.

The rocks of Shelby County dip gently toward the northwest. They show no marked dislocations except near Jeptha Knob, where they are broken by faults which have brought limestones of Niagaran age into contact with some of the older rocks of the Maysville formation.

WATER FOR DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL USES.

In the western part of this county some drilled wells, 50 to 100 feet deep, have obtained good supplies, but over a large part of the county drilled wells may yield very little water. A conspicuous example of a failure to find water is the well on Mr. Goodloe's farm, northeast of Shelbyville, which was carried to a depth of about 750 feet. Another well a short distance away obtained a good supply at less than 70 feet. In this county drilling should not, as a rule, be carried beyond 100 feet, and 150 feet should be the maximum depth unless mineral water is desired.

None of the formations exposed in Shelby County will supply sufficient water for a city system except the Lexington limestone, and

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even this formation may be expected to yield large supplies in only a few localities where conditions are especially favorable.

In Shelbyville, which is situated on rocks of the Maysville formation, it is practically certain that underground water of suitable quality and sufficient in quantity for a city supply is unobtainable, and the only alternative is the use of surface water. Filtered surface water, however, would compare very favorably with the underground water of the region.

TRIMBLE COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Trimble County is in the western part of the Blue Grass region and is bordered by Ohio River. The eastern part of the county has a gently rolling surface with broad shallow valleys separated by rounded divides, except near Little Kentucky River, which has cut a narrow trench 200 to 300 feet below the level of the upland. West of Bedford the streams flow in deep, narrow valleys which are separated by broad, flat, interstream spaces. The amount of relief increases toward Ohio River, where it approximates 400 feet.

The Little Kentucky, which crosses the eastern part of the county, receives the drainage of the area east of Bedford. The area west of Bedford is drained by several small tributaries of the Ohio, the most important being Pattons, Barebone, Corn, Spring, and Cooper creeks. None of these streams exceed 10 miles in length and all of them have very high gradients.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The unconsolidated materials of Trimble County include a mantle of glacial deposits in the western part of the county and of residual soils in the eastern part, with a deposit of alluvium 80 to 120 feet or more in thickness in the Ohio Valley.

The eastern boundary of the glacial deposits extends northward from the Oldham County line, passing about 5 miles east of Bedford and entering Carroll County west of Little Kentucky River. The material of these deposits is a red clay containing many fragments of chert and some pebbles of limestone. A few small fragments of igneous rocks occur in the till, but most of the pebbles are of local origin.

The residual soils of the eastern part of the county consist of dense clays, in few places more than 3 feet thick, which furnish little water directly to wells or springs except where they rest on the Eden shale.

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The alluvium of the Ohio Valley consists of coarse sands and gravels capped in many places by a few feet of buff silt. These materials supply an abundance of hard water for drilled or driven wells at depths of 60 to 110 feet. The water is not so hard as that derived from the consolidated materials on the upland.

CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The oldest rock appearing at the surface in Trimble County is the Eden shale, which is exposed at the foot of the bluff bordering the Ohio and in the valleys of Little Kentucky River and some of the smaller streams in the northeastern part of the county. In these valleys it furnishes small quantities of water for springs and shallow wells, but elsewhere in the county it is buried by younger formations and is not water bearing. The quality of much of the water from this shale is poor.

The eastern half of the county is underlain by rocks belonging to the Maysville and Richmond formations, which furnish moderate quantities of hard water for springs and shallow wells. The Richmond is especially well developed, more than 150 feet of interbedded limestones and shales belonging to this formation being exposed near Bedford. The upper part of the Richmond presents exceptionally favorable conditions for underground water and contains some very good springs. In some drilled wells the water is slightly brackish.

A large part of the upland near the Ohio is occupied by the blue shale and gray to buff heavy-bedded limestones belonging to the Panola formation. The limestone beds of this formation yield ample supplies of water containing considerable lime and magnesia. Some of the layers that rest on shale beds present unusually favorable conditions for underground water. Northwest of Bedford some large sink holes suggest the presence of good-sized caverns.

The Winchester, Lexington, and Highbridge limestones and the St. Peter sandstone are all buried beneath younger rocks in this county and will not yield fresh water, but any of them may yield salt-sulphur water in deep drilled wells. In the Ohio Valley flowing wells could be obtained by drilling into the St. Peter, but the quality of the water in this formation renders it unfit for ordinary uses.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

A number of good springs are found in the western part of Trimble County, but from Bedford eastward the springs are small and many of them fail during dry seasons. The Bedford mineral spring was formerly a summer resort of considerable note.

Dug wells from 10 to 30 feet deep are a common source of supply for farms and villages. During recent years many of these wells have been supplanted by cisterns.

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Drilled wells are usually successful on the upland west of Bedford, but few of them procure large supplies. At Bedford two unsuccessful wells have been drilled.

WOODFORD COUNTY.

SURFACE FEATURES.

Woodford County lies in the southern part of the Blue Grass region, on the east side of Kentucky River, which is here less than 500 feet above sea level; the highest parts of the upland have an altitude of nearly 1,000 feet.

The drainage of the county reaches the Kentucky through Clear, Glen, and South Elkhorn creeks and many small streams. All the surface streams receive large quantities of water from springs fed by underground streams. Such underground streams occur in all parts of the county, but they appear to be especially large and numerous on the divide northeast of Versailles. On this divide are many sink holes which receive the drainage from considerable areas. An example of this is the big sink northeast of Versailles, which receives the drainage from a surface stream more than a mile in length and which is said to be connected by an underground channel with the Big Spring. This spring, which is probably the largest in the Blue Grass region, emerges from a cavern, flows for some distance as a surface stream, and then enters an underground channel through a sink hole. Other examples of sinking streams are to be found on the Woodburn farm, near Spring Station, and at Childer's place, near Versailles. In this county, as elsewhere in the region, most of the large springs emerge in small gullies. Caverns of considerable size exist in various parts of the county, and some of them have been explored for short distances.

Most of the surface streams tributary to the Kentucky have broad valleys on the upland and descend to the river in narrow canyons.

GEOLOGY AND UNDERGROUND WATERS.

UNCONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The residual materials in Woodford County consist of yellowish or reddish loams and clays which were formed by the decomposition of limestones and shales and which probably have an average thickness of less than 6 feet, although in some places the maximum thickness may exceed 20 feet. These materials furnish little water directly to wells or springs, but they store large quantities of water and supply it gradually to the channels in the limestone.

Thin strips of sandy alluvium, which supplies large quantities of water to springs on the banks of the river and might also furnish an abundance of water for wells, are found in the wider parts of the gorge of Kentucky River. The thickness of this alluvium has not been determined by borings, but it probably does not exceed 50 to 60 feet.

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CONSOLIDATED MATERIALS.

The Highbridge limestone is exposed in the gorge of Kentucky River, but it dips steeply northward and the thickness of the exposure decreases toward the northern end of the county. Where it forms the surface rock it furnishes hard water for springs and shallow wells, but elsewhere it yields water which is highly mineralized.

The Lexington limestone is exposed above the Highbridge along the valleys of the large streams and it forms the surface rock over a large portion of the upland. It is this limestone that contains the large underground streams referred to in a previous paragraph. In the localities of its outcrop it furnishes an abundance of hard water, but wells which penetrate it below the level of the surface drainage are apt to obtain salt or salt-sulphur water.

The Winchester limestone outcrops over considerable areas in the northern half of the county and supplies moderate quantities of hard water. It may also supply some of the sulphur water which is encountered in the drilled wells of the northern part of the county.

The Eden shale, which caps some of the hills in the northwestern part of the county, furnishes small quantities of water to springs and shallow dug wells, but none for deep wells.

The St. Peter sandstone will supply salt-sulphur water at depths ranging from 700 to 800 feet in the gorge of Kentucky River to 1,200 feet or 1,300 feet on the upland. The water is under sufficient pressure to cause it to flow at the surface in the Kentucky gorge and in the lower parts of some of the tributary streams.

DOMESTIC AND INDUSTRIAL WATER SUPPLIES.

Dug wells are used to a moderate extent in Woodford County, but they are not held in great favor. Drilled wells are numerous in all parts of the county, and the water conditions are so favorable that many drillers agree to obtain water or make no charge for drilling. At Versailles about 100 wells have been drilled and none of them have failed to get water, while some have yielded over 100 gallons per minute.

The large spring at Spring Station probably has a greater volume than any other spring in the Blue Grass region. The flow of this spring was not determined, but it must amount to several million gallons per day.

WELLS AND WELL RECORDS.

The following list of well records (Table 8) includes about 75 per cent of the number that was collected during the progress of the field work. No attempt has been made to obtain records of all the wells in the region, but the list is believed to represent the underground water conditions and to indicate what may be expected by those who contemplate drilling.

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The wells in the alluvium are all located in the Ohio Valley. Wells sunk in this formation always procure water, unless they are located so close to the upland that they encounter rock near the surface. The water is entirely satisfactory for ordinary use and the supply ample.

The wells on the upland have been sunk in various formations, but it will be noted that none of the deep wells obtain water from the Eden shale. In the other formations the water supply varies in amount and character in different localities. Large supplies are encountered in many places in the Lexington limestone, while few wells in the Maysville and Richmond formations obtain more water than is needed for a single household. In the Winchester limestone underground water conditions are somewhat less favorable than in the Lexington. The Panola formation is seldom thick enough to warrant deep drilling, but near the western edge of Oldham and Trimble counties it supplies a number of good drilled wells.

In all of these formations, except the Panola, the deeper wells are apt to encounter the highly mineralized water which is designated sulphur water in the table. The depth to this mineral water varies from place to place and in different wells in the same locality; but in general the table will form a safe guide to the approximate depth of the ordinary limestone water, beyond which mineralized waters are probable.

In consulting the table it is well to remember that a well in any locality may fail to obtain water. In the Blue Grass region the number of unsuccessful wells is about 4 per cent of the whole number drilled. For the region as a whole, therefore, the probability of success in seeking water is very good, but the percentage of dry holes is much higher in some localities than in others. It may happen that some wells find water while others a few feet away are dry. This is explained by the fact that the water occurs in channels in the rock, and to be successful a well must encounter one of the water-bearing channels. The accompanying diagram, figure 5, shows two wells side by side—one successful, the other dry.

About 100 records were collected by Dr. Chase Palmer and the remainder by the author. Much valuable information in regard to the occurrence of underground water in the region was also furnished by the drillers whose names are given below:

J. B. Bonta.
E. C. Cox.
W. M. Cox.
E. C. Griggs.
George Icenhower.
John Kearney.
W. S. May.
Patton & Bailey.
W. R. Renfro.
Robinson & Moon.
George Sallee.
S. Wells.
Robert Smith.
E. M. Spence.
John O. Rogers.
W. B. Tadlock.

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region.*

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Anderson County.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Lawrenceburg	2 blocks W	City	8	75-100 240	40-45	Small streams				Hard; trace sulphur.		Lexington	Domestic, stock, boilers, manufacturing.	3 wells.
Do	200 yards NW	do	12-4	125	125	50	−110	150	Steam	Sulphur	Lowered	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	150 yards W	do	8	245	45	None.	− 8	60	Deep well.	Hard	do	do	do	
Do	5 miles N	Kentucky Distillery and Warehouse Co.; Blakemore Distillery.	6	50	48		− 5	100	Steam	Hard; sulphur.	None	do	Boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	½ mile S	Lawrenceburg Electric Light Co.	6	135			− 10	15	do	Hard		do	Manufacturing.	
Do	2 miles NW	W. B. Saffell	6	105	30		− 4		do	Sulphur		do	Drinking, manufacturing.	
McBrayer	4½ miles S	J. T. S. Brown & Sons.	8	65	60	None.	− 14			do.		do	Stock, manufacturing.	
Do	½ mile SW	do	3,6	70	70	None.	− ½		do		None	do	Domestic, manufacturing, stock.	
Tyrone		City	6	80					Hand	Hard, and one white sulphur.	do	Highbridge	Domestic, stock.	11 wells.

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Boone County.														
Bellevue	1 or 2 blocks	Bellevue		130	120-130	Above 120.			Hand	Hard	do	Alluvium	Stock	
Petersburg	3 blocks W	Boone County Distilling Co.		110	90-100	Small, above 90.			Steam	do	do	do	Manufacturing.	
Do	1 block E	F. M. Morgan	2	80	40				do	do		do	Boilers	
Do	1½ miles S	Frank D. Smith		100	80				Windmill	do		do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	1 block S	Town	4	115	100	None.			Hand	do	Varies, but plenty.	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ mile N	J. I. McWorthey	3	132	95	None.			Windmill	do	None	do	Stock	
Rabbit Hash	1 mile S	John McConnell	4	95	60	None.	− 60	4	do	do	do	do	do	
Taylorsport	½ mile E	P. Grubbs	3	110	32		− 18			Sulphur	do	do	do	
Bourbon County.														
Centerville	1 mile W	J. B. Haggin	5¼	125	85		− 50	50?	Gasoline engine.	Hard; sulphur		Lexington	Stock	
Clintonville	1 mile N	S. L. Weathers	8-6	50	45	25		30	Meyer's hand.	Sulphur	None	do	Domestic, stock.	
Elizabeth Station.	1 block N	John M. Leach	6	55	50	None.		4	Hand	Hard; some sulphur.	Lowers.	do	Stock	
Hutchison	100 yards W	M. R. Jacoby	6	72	72	None.	− 52		Windmill	Sulphur	None	do	Domestic	
Do	3 miles W	do	6	68	68	None.	− 15	8	Hand	Hard	do	do	do	
Millersburg		Millersburg Female College.	6	60	None.									
Do		do	6	120	None.									
North Middletown.	2 miles N	William Thomason.		40	40				Gasoline engine.	Slight sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Paris	1 mile S	Bourbon County Fair Association.	6	113	103	67	− 52		Hand	Hard; some sulphur.		do	Drinking	
Do	5 blocks W	Bourbon Steam Laundry.	8	90+			− 25		Hand, force.	Hard; slight sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock, manufacturing.	
Do	1 mile NE	Paris Distilling Co.	6	120			− 30			Hard; strong sulphur.		do		Not used.
Do	7 miles SE	Benj. Woodford		168		None.	− 40		Hand			do		
Do	5 miles S	W. B. Woodford	6	50	40	None.	− 20		Suction	Soft		do	Drinking	
Boyle County.														
Danville	2½ miles NW	Charles P. Cecil	5	90	85		− 35		Windmill	Sulphur		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2 miles	W. W. Johnson	4	180	90	None.		½	do	Hard	Lowered	Lexington	Washing, stock.	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks
Boyle County—Continued.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Danville	3 miles E.	D. F. Slavin	4	125	125	None.	− 50		Windmill	Hard	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Enido	¼ mile W.	J. L. Crain	6–4	65	62	38	− 45	1	Force	Soft; sulphur			do	
Hankla	½ mile W.	George Gordon	6	51	51		− 27			Sulphur	None		do	
Do	1½ miles W.	W. F. Powers	6	58			− 32				do		do	
Mitchellsburg	200 yards E.	School district	6	72	72	40±			Hand	Hard; sulphur	do	Chattanooga.	Drinking.	
Do	East	L. R. Wharton	6	73	73		− 33		do	Sulphur	do	do (?)	Domestic, stock.	
Parksville	50 yards W.	Lapp Ewing	6	100			− 8						Domestic, stock, boilers.	
Do	200 yards NE.	J. D. Minor	6	57			− 30				Weak supply.		Domestic, stock.	
Perryville	4 blocks E.	Samuel Bonta	4	60	60	None.	− 40		Force	Soft; black sulphur.		Lexington	do	
Do	1½ miles SW.	J. W. Broghs	4	56		None.	− 25		Hand	Slight sulphur.	None	do		
Do	250 yards W.	J. A. Carpenter	6	67	67	None.	− 45		Force	Sulphur		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2½ miles N.	J. W. Moss	6	100	100				Windmill	Hard; possibly oil.		do	Stock	
Do	2½ miles E.	R. A. Walker	6	125	125	None.	− 93		Deep well.	Hard; salt, oil, and iron.		do	Cooking, stock.	
Do	300 yards W.	George Warren	6	82	82	None.			Force	Slight sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	3 miles W.	Richard G. White.	6	70	70	None.	− 40			Slight sulphur and gas.		do	Domestic.	
Bracken County.														
Augusta	1 block S.	Augusta Milling Co.	4	85	40		− 40	45	Steam	Hard	None	Alluvium	Boilers	

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Do	3 blocks E	Augusta Steam Laundry.	2	80	60			25+	do	do	Not lowered when 25 gallons were pumped.	do	do		
Do	2 squares W	J. R. Carter	6	86	80	50	− 40	Unlimited.	Hand	do		do	Drinking, stock.		
Do		City	3	90–115	40–50	10, 40–50	− 50±		do	do		do	Domestic, stock, boilers.		
Do	2 blocks NW	do	6	96	50±		− 46	60+	Steam	do	None	do	Boilers		
Do	1½ miles W	E. F. Frolicher	6	170	170	None.	− 60+		Hand; gasoline engine.	Mineral		Winchester (?)	Drinking		
Foster	1 block N	Town	6	106	102	30	− 70±		Hand	Hard	Slight	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	Abandoned.	
Wellsburg	15 rods	Noble Stair		68	35				Steam	do		Alluvium	Drinking, washing, boilers.		
Campbell County.															
Newport	4 miles S	Bastian dairy	4	101	− 65	Several veins.	− 40	15	Hand	do	None		Stock		
Do	Evergreen Cemetery.	Evergreen Cemetery Co.	4	600	200	None.	−194	1¾	do	Slight sulphur.	do	Maysville and Eden.		Probably entered Trenton.	
Do	Berry ave between 2d and 3d.	Frigid Ice Co	10	122	52	122	− 52	209	Steam	Hard	do	Alluvium	Manufacturing.	Uses water for cooling.	
Do		Old 76 Distilling Co.	3	1250		A little fresh water.		34+		Sulphur	do	St. Peter	Drinking, manufacturing.	Very strong salt-sulphur.	
Do		George Weidemann Brewing Co.	10	110, 275	80	None.	− 70	350	Air lift	Hard	do	Alluvium	Manufacturing.	Uses several wells for cooling purposes.	
Carroll County.															
Carrollton	½ mile W	Atkinson Bros. Co.	3	70	45		40			do		do	Boilers		
Do	½ mile S	Carrollton Furniture Manufacturing Co.	3	98					Steam	do	None	do	Drinking		
Do	5 miles NE	G. H. Conway	8–6	540	20	540	− 90								
Do	½ mile S	Jett Bros. Distillery Co.	5, 8	80–90	40		− 40	300	Steam	Hard		Alluvium	Boilers, manufacturing.	Six wells.	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Carroll Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Ghent		City of Ghent	4	108,94	70		− 80	2	Hand	Hard	None	Alluvium	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1½ miles NE	H. M. Froman	2	114	85	114	− 35	1	Windmill	do	do	do	do	
Do	1½ miles N	do		150					do			do	Stock	
Milton	4 miles E	C. S. Tandy	3	82	60		− 60		Hand	Hard		do	do	
Sanders	4 miles NE	F. B. McDonald	8¼	841	840					Hard; sulphur		Lexington		
Clark County.														
Dodge	Across road S.	S. D. Chism	6	58	54	None.	− 38		Hand	Sulphur	None	Winchester	Domestic, stock.	
Do	40 rods W	G. T. Roland	6	50	44	None.	− 15		do	Sulphur; salt	do	do	Drinking, stock.	
Hedges	1½ miles SE	L. T. Bush	5	113	75–80	None.	− 70		do	Salt; sulphur	do	Lexington	Domestic.	
Pine Grove	1½ miles S	A. Younger Jones.	4½	90	80–85	50–55	− 65		Gasoline engine.	Hard	do	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	100 yards NE	D. W. Scott	4½	134	127	None.	− 90+		Hand	Hard; magnesia.	Slight	do	do	
Winchester	5½ miles N	Oscar Johnson	5	70–75					Windmill	Strong sulphur	None	Winchester	Stock	
Do	½ mile E	Reliance Manufacturing Co.	4½	55+	35	42				Sulphur		do		
Do	½ mile S. of E	R. P. Scroble	6	100										No water of importance
Do	¼ mile N	Winchester Electric Light and Ice Plant.	6	132,112								Lexington		Salt water, unfit for use.
Do	6 miles N	N. H. Witherspoon.	5	146	140				Hand	Sulphur	None	do	Drinking	
Wyandott	2 miles	B. M. Renick	4	145,165	100	None.			Force		do		Domestic, stock.	
Fayette County.														
Chilesburg	2 miles N	Rev. W. H. Felix		75		do			Gasoline engine.	Salt, iron, and sulphur bearing.		Lexington	Drinking, stock.	

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Elizabeth	1½ miles S	Abram Jones	6-4	150	150	60	− 50		Force	Soft		do	Domestic, stock.	
Greendale	½ mile W	Kentucky Reform school.	5	214,212					Steam			Highbridge	Domestic, stock, boilers.	
Do	½ mile E	S. C. Nunnelly		230		Above 30.			Hand	Sulphur	Strong supply.	Lexington (?).		Not used now.
Do	1 mile NW	State	5	214,212	60,75	101,175	− 75 to − 60	35	Steam and gas.	do		Highbridge (?)	Domestic, manufacturing.	
Lexington	5½ miles Georgetown Pike.	Dr. Aiken	4	200	94	40			Windmill.	Hard	None	Lexington	Stock	
Do	¾ mile NW	Blue Grass Stock Yards.	6	84,124			− 40+		Horse-power.	do	do	do	do	
Do	1½ miles NE	Boice & Grogan Lumber Co.	8	116	50	20		40	Deep well.	do	Varies	do	Boilers	
Do		City Ice Co.	6	190					Steam			do		Not used.
Do	1½ miles N	Benj. M. Cole	4½	95	95	None.			Force	Alkaline	None	do	Domestic, stock.	Mineral water.
Do	¾ mile W	Consumers' Ice Co.	8, 5, 5	400, 150, 100	274			100		Sulphur		do	Manufacturing.	450-foot well enters Highbridge limestone.
Do	10 miles N	B. S. Coyle	4½	100	80	None.	− 35	3	Force	Hard	Lowered	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	do	do	4½	112	110	70	−100	60	do	Limestone	None	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	10 miles	do	4½	142	80-130	None.	− 30	7	do	do	do	do	do	
Do	5 miles SE	R. C. Estill	5-4	225	150	25,65	− 45		Hand	Salt; sulphur.		Highbridge (?)	Stock	
Do	5½ miles SW	Alex. Foley	6	71	71				do	Hard	None	Lexington		Not used.
Do	1½ miles W	G. R. Foster	4½	200	90		+ 0			do	Varies	do	Drinking, manufacturing.	
Do	3 miles N	John N. Foster	4½	100	−5, −65			66	Steam	do		do	Irrigation.	
Do	¾ mile SW	Gentry heirs	4	85					Windmill, electric motor.	do	None	do	Stock	
Do	12 miles E of S.	Dr. D. J. Gibson	5	52	40	None.	− 27		Hand	Slight sulphur	do	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	10 miles NE	J. B. Haggin		165					Windmill.	Sulphur	do	do	Stock	Has several other wells
Do	7½ miles S	do	6	198			− 90		do	Salt; sulphur		do		Very highly mineralized.

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Fayette Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Lexington	1½ miles W	J. R. Hughes	6	85				6+	Gasoline engine, windmill.	Hard	None	Lexington	Stock	
Do	5 miles NW	Ed. Kane	4	78			−40		Hand			do	Domestic, stock.	
Do		Lexington Brewery Co.	5	143	142	30, 80			Steam	Hard		do	Manufacturing.	
Do		do	8	150	142	30, 80	−8 to −15	230	do	do		do	do	
Do	1½ miles E	Lexington Brick Co.	4	180	12	None.	−8 to −30+		do	do	Varies	do	Drinking, manufacturing.	
Do	1½ miles NE	L. and E. R. R.	8	187	45 or 50	None.	−21	6+	Deep well	do	do	do	Stock, boilers.	
Do	1 block W	Lexington Laundry.	8	175	170	14, 75	−12½	80	Steam	do	None noted.	do	Laundry	
Do	4 miles SE	J. E. Madden	5	60	30			9+	Gasoline engine.	Slight sulphur.	Strong stream.	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	do	do	5	90				9+	do	Considerable sulphur.		do	do	
Do	do	do	5	125				6+	Windmill	Strong sulphur		do	do	
Do	1½ miles NW	Meadowthorpe Stock Farm.	6	105	95	None.			do	Sulphur	None	do	do	
Do	8 miles S	Z. T. Newman	4	95	70		−65		Hand	Little sulphur.	do	do	do	
Do	12 miles SW	James E. Pepper Distilling Co.	6	50, 100, 100, 130	90	15–16, 49	−7	173	Air lift			do	Distillery	
Do	1 mile SE	William Pettit	4	51	51	None.	−11		Hand		Strong flow.	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1½ miles S	do		65			−10		do	Hard		do	do	
Do		W. R. Renfro	4½	66	60		−40	5	do	White sulphur and lithia.	None	do	Drinking	Mineral water.

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Do	1½ miles N	Alfred Ruh	5½	140	140	62	−60		Force, gasoline engine.	Sulphur	do	do	Domestic, stock, irrigation.	
Do	2 miles SW	Mrs. J. W. Sayre	4	168	168	48	−70		Windmill			do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	1 mile SW	Albert Shuler	6	85	83	None.			do	Hard; sulphur.	None	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2 miles NW	Dr. J. W. Wilson	4½-4	126	126	None.	−76		Hand	Sulphur		do	do	
Nicholasville	7 miles E	Baptist Church	4	80	78				do	do	None	do	do	
Do	8 miles S	County farm	4	120				4+	do	do		do	Drinking	
Do	7 miles NE	East Hickman Church.	6	150	125	90	−40		do	do		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	7½ miles SE	Mrs. Keith	4	100+					do	Hard		do	do	
Do	7 miles SE	E. E. Price	4	110	100					Gas		do		Not used.
Do	8 miles SE	Mrs. J. W. Strode	4	100+					Hand	Hard		do	Drinking, stock.	
Walnut Hall		Spring										do		Spring supplies farm.
Fleming County.														
Flemingsburg	1 mile SE	William H. Belt	6	100			−80		Hand	Hard		Maysville	Drinking, stock.	
Do	¼ mile E	City	6	70								do		Little oil at 65 feet.
Do	½ block N	do	6	125	69	69-73	−30	6	Hand	Hard; slight sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ block S	A. H. Evans	6	75	25		−18	20		do	None	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	⅛ mile E	Henderson & O'Bannon.	6	80	57	None.	−36	15-18	Hand and steam.	Salt, alkaline, iron, sulphur.	Lowers	do	Domestic, manufacturing.	
Do	do	do	6	102	45	Several.	−14	18-20	Steam	do	None	do	Drinking, manufacturing.	Used in ice plant.
Do	2 miles SW	W. J. Hendrix	6	72+	30	18	−40		Hand	Hard	do	do	Domestic.	
Hillsboro	3 miles E	J. W. Gilmore	6	65	60	25	−15		do	do		Panola	Domestic, stock.	Supply easily exhausted.
Do	1 block W	J. H. Shepard	6	140	20					Oil at 100 feet.				Never used, on account of oil.
Muses Mills	2 miles W	W. H. Means	6	1,000	18-20	None.								Very little water.
Poplar Plains	1 mile N	R. F. Deering	6	100+	95					Oil and gas		Maysville(?)	Cooking	Now closed.
Do	400 yards E	E. P. Maggard	6	100	70	10			Hand			Maysville	Stock	Used but little.
Do	do	do	6	120	60	10			do			do	do	Do.
Do		J. W. Patrick	6	100	90+	30, 25	−15		do	Hard	Slight	do	Domestic.	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Fleming Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Poplar Plains		Town	6	100								Slight		
Sunset	½ mile W	O. B. Graham	6	71½	35		− 3 to −5					do	Stock	Flow caused by gas; stopped in 1 week.
Do	do	do	6	150	120		− 3 to −5				Fluctuates	do		
Do	do	do	6	196	40		− 3 to −5			Salt; some sulphur.		do	Stock, cooking.	
Tilton (?)		Town	6	80	60	None.	− 1½		(?)	Hard; little salt.	Easily drawn dry.			Well never used
Franklin County.														
Forks of Elkhorn	200 yards N	Albert Hockensmith.	5	70	60+	Small seeps.			Hand	Only strong sulphur when well pumped out.	Empties in 2 hours, but fills in 24.	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Frankfort	¾ mile SE	W. A. Gaines & Co.	6–10	70	52	None.	− 30	400	Deep well.	Hard		Highbridge	Manufacturing.	
Do	2 miles W	S. C. Herbst	8–6	300	None.	None.		None.						No water.
Do	4 miles SE	S. French Hogue.	5	80						Hard		Lexington	Stock	
Do	1 mile N	James A. Murray	6	1,300	900	None.	+ 80			Sulphur		St. Peter	Domestic, stock.	
Do	3½ N	E. B. Weitzel		90						Hard		Lexington	Stock	
Do	4 blocks E	do	6	200	100	150 (?)	− 40					Highbridge		Supply too small for use.
Grafenburg	½ mile E	Elias Herndon	6	50	45				Hand	Hard	Varies		Drinking, cooking.	
Jett	½ mile W	T. K. Jett	6	65	65		− 45		Windmill.	Very strong sulphur.	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	Can not pump dry.
Do	do	do	5½	72	72		− 58		do	do		do	do	
Do	½ mile S	W. B. Jones	6	50	10+	None.	− 5	All necessary	Hand	Rather soft		do	Domestic, stock	Not used.

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Do	300 yards N	L. A. Owen		85						Hard	Pumped dry in 15 minutes.	do			
Do	50 feet W	Lee A. Owen	5	107	107	50+	− 50		Windmill	Strong sulphur at first, none now.		do	Domestic.		
Do	150 feet E	W. B. Quin	6-5	54	30	52	− 20		Hand	Hard	Lowered some.	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	1 block NE	J. R. Shaw	4½	54	50	None.	− 14		Gasoline engine.	Trace of sulphur at first, slight now.	None	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	½ mile S	do	6	60	55		− 40		Windmill.	Hard		do	Domestic, stock.		
Gallatin County.															
Brashear	1½ miles S	J. S. Peyton	2	100	100	65	− 20		Windmill.	Soft (?)			do		
Gex	1 block S	Thomas Mylor	3	96	50				Hand	Hard		Alluvium	do		
Ghent	2 blocks NW	Parker & Deane	2	80					Steam	do	None	do	Stock		
Sanders	4 miles W	G. Cox	8¼	352						Salt water and gas.					
Do	do	Mrs. William Roswell.	8½	550	15					Hard					
Do	250 yards S	Sanders Oil and Gas Co.	8	741	741		+ 75	−1		Sulphur; salt					
Warsaw	¾ mile E	Arch Bell		125	100±		−100	5	Hand	Hard	None	Alluvium	Domestic, stock.		
Do	1 mile S	Samuel Bledsoe		90±					Windmill.	do		do	Stock		
Do	2 blocks W	City of Warsaw	2,3	60	50		− 50	8	Hand	do	None	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	Within 3 or 4 blocks.	do	3	90-100	85±		−85 to −90	8	do	do	do	do	do		
Do	3 miles S	Ashton Craig		103	45			−45	do	do		do	Stock		
Do	6 miles S	G. A. Ghex	3	90+	60		− 60		Windmill.	do		do	do		Unlimited supply.
Do	2 blocks N	Warsaw Furniture Co.	4	90	80		− 30±	30	Steam	do	None	do	Boilers		Hardness low.
Garrard County.															
Bryantsville	¼ mile S	C. M. Jenkins	4	60	45	18	− 4	2	Windmill.	do		Lexington	Stock		
Hyattsville	1 mile E	James N. Denny.	4	104	104			Small seep.				Maysville			Not used.
Marcellus	3 miles W	I. M. Dunn	4	54	40	None.	− 40	5	Windmill.	White sulphur		Lexington	Domestic, stock.		
Do	½ mile E	A. B. Montgomery.	6	60	35		− 6		Hand		None	do	do		
Do	A few rods SW.	C. K. Poindexter	4	129	100±				do	Hard and iron.	Easily pumped dry.	do	do		
Point Leavell	20 rods SE	O. T. Wallace	4	70	25	None.			do	Sulphur	None	Winchester	Stock		

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Fleming Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Poplar Plains		Town	6	100								Slight		
Sunset	½ mile W	O. B. Graham	6	71½	35		−3 to −5					do	Stock	Flow caused by gas; stopped in 1 week.
Do	do	do	6	150	120		−3 to −5				Fluctuates	do		
Do	do	do	6	196	40		−3 to −5			Salt; some sulphur.		do	Stock, cooking.	
Tilton (?)		Town	6	80	60	None.	− 1½		(?)	Hard; little salt.	Easily drawn dry.			Well never used
Franklin County.														
Forks of Elkhorn	200 yards N	Albert Hockensmith.	5	70	60+	Small seeps.			Hand	Only strong sulphur when well pumped out.	Empties in 2 hours, but fills in 24.	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Frankfort	¾ mile SE	W. A. Gaines & Co.	6–10	70	52	None.	− 30	400	Deep well.	Hard		Highbridge	Manufacturing.	
Do	2 miles W	S. C. Herbst	8–6	300	None.	None.		None.						No water.
Do	4 miles SE	S. French Hogue.	5	80						Hard		Lexington	Stock	
Do	1 mile N	James A. Murray	6	1,300	900	None.	+ 80			Sulphur		St. Peter	Domestic, stock.	
Do	3½ N	E. B. Weltzel		90						Hard		Lexington	Stock	
Do	4 blocks E	do	6	200	100	150 (?)	− 40					Highbridge		Supply too small for use.
Grafenburg	½ mile E	Elias Herndon	6	50	45				Hand	Hard	Varies		Drinking, cooking.	
Jett	½ mile W	T. K. Jett	6	65	65		− 45		Windmill.	Very strong sulphur.	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	Can not pump dry.
Do	do	do	5½	72	72		58		do	do		do	do	Not used.
Do	¼ mile S	W. B. Jones	6	50	10+	None.	5	All necessary	Hand	Rather soft		do	Domestic, stock.	

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Do	300 yards N	L. A. Owen		85							Hard	dry in 15 minutes.			
Do	50 feet W	Lee A. Owen	5	107	107	50+	− 50		Windmill	Strong sulphur at first, none now.		do	Domestic.		
Do	150 feet E	W. B. Quin	6-5	54	30	52	− 20		Hand	Hard	Lowered some.	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	1 block NE	J. R. Shaw	4½	54	50	None.	− 14		Gasoline engine.	Trace of sulphur at first, slight now.	None	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	½ mile S	do	6	60	55		− 40		Windmill.	Hard		do	Domestic, stock.		
Gallatin County.															
Brashear	1½ miles S	J. S. Peyton	2	100	100	65	− 20		Windmill.	Soft (?)			do		
Gex	1 block S	Thomas Mylor	3	96	50				Hand	Hard		Alluvium	do		
Ghent	2 blocks NW	Parker & Deane	2	80					Steam	do	None	do	Stock		
Sanders	4 miles W	G. Cox	8¼	352						Salt water and gas.					
Do	do	Mrs. William Roswell.	8¼	550	15					Hard					
Do	250 yards S	Sanders Oil and Gas Co.	8	741	741		+ 75	−1		Sulphur; salt					
Warsaw	¾ mile E	Arch Bell		125	100±		−100	5	Hand	Hard	None	Alluvium	Domestic, stock.		
Do	1 mile S	Samuel Bledsoe		90±					Windmill.	do		do	Stock		
Do	2 blocks W	City of Warsaw	2,3	60	50		− 50	8	Hand	do	None	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	Within 3 or 4 blocks.	do	3	90-100	85±		−85 to −90	8	do	do	do	do	do		
Do	3 miles S	Ashton Craig		103	45			−45	do	do		do	Stock		
Do	6 miles S	G. A. Ghex	3	90+	60		− 60		Windmill.	do		do	do		Unlimited supply.
Do	2 blocks N	Warsaw Furniture Co.	4	90	80		− 30±	30	Steam	do	None	do	Boilers		Hardness low.
Garrard County															
Bryantsville	½ mile S	C. M. Jenkins	4	60	45	18	− 4	2	Windmill.	do		Lexington	Stock		
Hyattsville	1 mile E	James N. Denny.	4	104	104			Small seep.				Maysville			Not used.
Marcellus	3 miles W	I. M. Dunn	4	54	40	None.	− 40	5	Windmill.	White sulphur		Lexington	Domestic, stock.		
Do	½ mile E	A. B. Montgomery.	6	60	35		− 6		Hand		None	do	do		
Do	A few rods SW.	C. K. Poindexter	4	129	100±				do	Hard and iron.	Easily pumped dry.	do	do		
Point Leavell	20 rods SE	O. T. Wallace	4	70	25	None.			do	Sulphur	None	Winchester	Stock		

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Harrison County.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls*						
Berry	1 block W.	Berry	6	130	120	None.	−24	2	Hand		None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1 block S.	J. W. Haley	6	85	78	None.	−40	30	do		Lowered when pumped.	do	do	
Boyd	2 blocks SE.	J. S. Baskett	6	100	90		−60			Hard; gas with water.	None	do		
Do	½ mile W.	J. H. Knox	4	70	60	None.	−40		Hand	Hard	Low in dry weather.	do	Stock	
Claysville	3½ miles SW.	George B. Duckworth.	6	117	100+		− 0		do	Hard; some sulphur.		do		Never used.
Do	¼ mile NW.	Foster McDowell	6	131	65		−25	2	do	Hard; sulphur.	None	do	Domestic, stock.	
Colville	¾ mile S. of E.	L. W. Diltz	6	90	75–80	20	−10		Force	Hard; sulphur and oil.	do	do	Drinking, stock.	
Cynthiana	1½ miles N.	A. Keller Distillery.	6	160			−14		Hand	Hard; sulphur.		do		
Do	¾ mile N.	F. S. Ashbrook Distilleries Co.	8	280	90–100		−15		Steam	Hard; slight sulphur.	None	do	Manufacturing.	
Do	3 blocks SE.	W. M. Cox	6	50	45	None.	−30		Gasoline engine.			do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2 blocks S.	J. W. Daniel	6	90			−30		Hand	Hard; some sulphur.	None	do	Boilers, manufacturing.	The amount of sulphur increases in dry weather.
Do	4½ miles NW.	S. O. Ecker	6	119	119	30–40	−59	4	do	Hard; slight sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	4½ miles S.	Edgewater Distillery.	6	168	140–150		+ 8			Sulphur water at 100 feet; less at 168 feet.		do	do	
Do	4 miles W.	John K. Gray	6	120	No water.							do		No water.

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										tastes of oil.			stock.	
Do	3½ miles E	M. J. Rankin	6	90	80	None.				Sulphur water; gas.		do		Not used.
Do	3 miles SE	Wohlender Bros.	6	74+	68	None.	−35	8+	Hand	Slight sulphur.	None	do	Drinking	
Hooktown	1¼ miles NW	Wm. Florence	6	88	25		−30		Force	Gas; salt	Lowers	do	Domestic	
Jacksonville	200 yards E	J. Rose	6	98	81	16	−48		Hand	Strong sulphur water.	Slight	do	Drinking, stock.	
Lair	Across river E.	Edgewater Distillery.	6	150	125				Steam	Sulphur	None	do	Manufacturing.	Distillery abandoned.
Do	do	do	6	175	125				do	do	do	do	Drinking, manufacturing.	Do.
Do	do	Old Lewis Hunter Distillery	6	110	90	None.	−50		do	Some sulphur	do	do	Manufacturing.	
Leesburg	1½ miles SE	R. J. Lucas	6	68		10, 20, 60	−12		Hand	Hard	In dry weather gets below −50 feet.	do	Domestic	
Paris	8 miles NW	J. Crombie	6	70	68		−48		do	Sulphur	None	do	Stock	
Henry County.														
Eminence	½ mile SE	Charles S. Knight	6	68					do	Hard		Maysville	Domestic	
Jessamine County.														
Brannon	2 miles NW	William Sale		60				½	Force	Iron		Lexington	do	
Camp Nelson	200 yards +N.	Kentucky Distilleries and Warehouse Co.	8	100					Steam	Hard	Lowered 7 or 8 feet.	do	Manufacturing.	
Do	8½ miles south of Nicholasville.	do	6, 8	196			−20	100	Air lift	Mild black sulphur water.		Below Highbridge.	do	
Hano	1¼ miles S	H. B. Sand	6	74	70	None.	−34		Hand	Hard	None		Stock	
Keene	3 miles E	J. J. Gormley	6–4½	152	115	50	−50		Deep well and windmill.	Slightly sulphur.		Lexington	Drinking, stock.	
Do	2½ miles NE	R. R. Henderson.	4	100	99	None.	−57	0	Hand	Strong sulphur water; salt.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2 miles N	Wharton Brothers.	4	80			−55		Hand	Sulphur		do	do	
Nicholasville	4 miles SE	City	4	85	85	None.	− 6		Wooden suction.	do	None	do	do	
Do	3¾ miles SE	J. W. Cobb and Steven Snowden.	5½–4	80	80	18	− 5	6	Hand suction.	do	do	do	do	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Jessamine Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Nicholasville	8½ miles NW	R. R. Henderson.	5-4	100	99	None.	−57	.....	Hand	Sulphur; soft	.....	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Do	100 feet N	Jessamine County.	5-3	110	100	60-80	−20	10	Deep well	Hard	None	do	do	
Do	50 yards S	do	4	120	120	.....	−20	.....	.....	do	.....	do	do	
Do	1,400 feet N	C. A. Kenney	6	77	62	.....	−22	25	Steam	Fairly hard	None	do	Domestic, stock, boilers.	
Do	3 blocks N	do	6	75	62	50	−20	27	do	Hard	do	do	Domestic, boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	do	C. A. Kenney Laundry.	8	75	62	50	−20	14	do	do	do	do	do	
Do	50 feet S. of C. A. Kenney's.	Nicholasville Ice Co.	8	71	62	None.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	do	Ice plant	
Do	2½ miles W	Nicholasville Water Co.	8	130	65	.....	−3	200	Air lift	Hard	.....	do	Domestic, stock, boilers, manufacturing, irrigation.	
Do	do	do	8	135	65	.....	−6	200	do	do	.....	do	do	
Do	.....	W. D. Sharp	.....	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Salt, iron, sulphur.	.....	Highbridge.	Drinking	
Wilmore	10 rods S	City	4±	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	Hand	Hard	.....	do	Domestic, stock.	Supply small.
Do	2½ miles NE	Stephen Grow	4	140	.....	.....	.....	.....	Windmill	Sulphur	.....	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ mile SE	.....	4	62	.....	None.	−15	.....	Hand	Hard	.....	do	do	

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Kenton County.														
Bromley	2 blocks SW	G. H. Hackladt	6	90	60			1	do	Hard; some sulphur.	None	Alluvium	do	
Do		C. Lagee	6	70	18			1	do	do	do	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do		William Shafer	6	71	60			1	do	do	do	do	do	
Do		Webber	3	80			−30				do	do	Domestic, stock.	
Covington		Bavarian Brewing Co.	6, 8	69–73	62		−60	50	Cook, McGowan, Laidlaw-Dunne.	Hard; some sulphur.	Lowers	do	Manufacturing.	
Do	3 blocks S	John Brenner Brewing Co.	8	80	60		−50	100	Steam	Hard; slight sulphur.		do	do	
Do	2 blocks NW	Cincinnati Ice Co.	8	200	65		−40	250	Air lift	do		do	do	
Do	S	Consumers' Ice Manufacturing and Cold Storage Co.	4–8	110	80		−75	182	Dunne-Gordon.	do	None	do	Drinking, manufacturing.	
Do	Central avenue and Dayton street.	John Hancks Brewing Co.	8	140–165			−60	80+		Hard	do	do	Manufacturing.	Several wells.
Do		New England Distilling Co.	8	110			−20		Laidlaw-Dunne-Gordon.	Hard; some sulphur.	do	do	Manufacturing, irrigation.	
Latonia	½ mile E	Latonia Distillery.	4	1,100	1,000					Strong sulphur.	do	St. Peter	Drinking, manufacturing.	
Do		Latonia Ice Co.	8, 6	105	90+	Beds of sand.	−25		Steam	Hard	do	Alluvium	Manufacturing.	Uses 2 wells for cooling.
Do	1 mile S	George Smith		275										No water.
Madison County.														
Paint Lick	500 yards NE	R. N. Beasley	6	51	51	None.	− 5			Salt alkaline		Lexington		Too salt to use.
Richmond		Cooperage plant		300	40	do				Hard		Maysville		Small supply.
Mason County.														
Dover	In village	Dover City	3	70–85					Hand	do		Alluvium	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1 mile N	Fred Kelch	2	60					do			do	do	
Do	¼ mile S	Henry Schubert	6	157	65		−20		do	Iron		do	Domestic, stock.	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Mason Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Dover	1½ miles SE.	Wilson Smith	1½	70	55	.....	−55	6	Hand	Moderately hard.	Unaffected when pumped 5 gallons per minute.	Alluvium	Domestic, stock.	
Do	6 blocks S.	J. J. Thomas	2	80	60	.....	−60	10	do	Hard	Unaffected when pumped 10 gallons per minute.	do	do	
Do	1 block SE.	W. H. Thomas	2	76	65	.....	−55–60	10	do	do	do	do	Domestic, boilers, stock.	
Fernleaf	3 miles E.	E. C. Slack	6	98	95+	None.	−27	Few.	Hand, windmill.	do	Slight	Maysville	Domestic, stock.	Slight odor of petroleum.
Maysville	Same block	R. A. Carr	7–8	108	.....	.....	.....	.....	Steam	do	.....	Alluvium	Boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	1 mile E.	Pearce Foster	8	91, 92	40	16 to bottom.	−40	20	do	do	Unaffected when pumped 20 gallons per minute.	do	do	2 wells.
Do	4 miles N.	Elisha Moran	6	70	70	35	−35	.....	Force	do	.....	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	3 blocks E.	William Sprom-burgo.	3	75	.....	.....	.....	30	Steam	do	None	do	Drinking, washing.	
South Ripley	Across railroad W.	Chesapeake & Ohio Ry.	2(?)	80	65	.....	−65		Hand	Hard, brackish	.....	do	Drinking	
Tuckahoe	1 mile W. of S.	John T. Boulin	6	315	40	20	7			Soft				Not used.

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Mercer County.														
Burgin	1 block SW	Gilliam & Tully	5½	60	50				Force	Hard	None	Lexington	Manufacturing.	
Do	do	J. W. Gilliam	5½	90	80±				Steam	do		do	Drinking, boilers.	
Do	½ mile	Public	8	40–100			−20 to −80		Force	do		do	Domestic, manufacturing, stock.	
Harrodsburg	2 miles E	Brown & True	5		90	90	−20		Windmill	Hard; black sulphur.	None	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	do	William Brown	5	90	90	None.	−20		do	Hard; strong sulphur.	do	do	do	
Do	2 miles N	George Chinn	6	85	75				Hand	White sulphur water.		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	3½ miles E	Scott Covert	5	103			−63		do	Hard	None	do	do	
Do	4 miles S	Judge John Hughes.		97			−10			White sulphur water.		do	Stock	Inexhaustible.
Do	3½ miles S	do		101	101		− 2	50±		do		do	do	
Do	½ mile NW	Ice factory	3¾	55	Near bottom.	10		80	Steam	Hard	Lowers	do	Boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	1¼ miles SW	Minor L. Ransdell.	5	85	40±	None.	−40		Hand	do	None	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	½ mile NW	John B. Thompson's Distillery.	6, 4	35 or 40			−15 to −20	100+	Steam	do	Varies	do	Manufacturing.	
Kirkwood	1 mile SE	California-Kentucky Oil Co.	8¼–6¼	1,400	15		−35		do	Mineral	None			Not used.
Nevada		Schoolhouse		85	80				Hand	Hard; sulphur		do	Drinking	
Salvisa	¼ mile S	G. H. Fallis	6½–6	90	60	None.	−60			Salt and sulphur.		do		Do.
Do	At	F. I. James	6	68	65	None.	−62		Hand	Hard		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1/17 mile SE	do	6	72	72	None.			Force	do		do	do	
Do	1 mile N	D. E. Nichols		110					Hand	do		do	Stock	
Do	500 yards NW	H. J. Trimble	4	65					Suction	Salt and iron		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	¼ mile N	K. S. Wood	5, 7	86, 52	48				Hand, windmill.	Hard	None	do	do	
Nicholas Co'y.														
Carlisle	SE	Carlisle Milling Co.	6	155	150			3	Steam		do	do	Domestic, stock.	Not used except in dry weather.
Do	1,500 feet SE	City	6	135	40 or 50				Force	Hard		Winchester	do	

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Gress region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Oldham County.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Beards	1 block W	Public well	6	50	40	50	− 12	½ to 1	Hand	Hard	None	Panola	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ block N	M. A. Stoess	6	50	20	None.			do	do	do	do	do	
La Grange	½ mile S	J. W. Barrickman.		1,200	1,200					Sulphur			Drinking	
Do	4 blocks E	Stock Company	6	1,000	Dry hole.									
Do	3 blocks E	do	6	1,500	1,200	1,100	− 25							
Pewee Valley		Mrs. L. T. Cleland.	6	65	45	None.			Hand	Hard		Panola	Domestic	
Do	1 block W	Foley Bros.	6	60	25	40+				do		do	do	
Do	200 yards NE	Kentucky Confederate Veterans' Home.	6	200	−23	None.	− 23		Hand	do	Lowers	do	do	
Pendleton Co'y.														
		J. M. Booher	6	90	85	21			Force	Salt		Lexington	Stock	
Boston Station	½ mile S	Mollie A. Edwards.	8-6	1,600	800	None.				Iron and sulphur.		St. Peter	Drinking, stock.	
Robertson Co'y.														
Mount Olivet	2½ miles S	D. R. Wells	5	54			− 30		Force	Hard		Winchester.	Drinking, stock.	
Do		John W. Zoller	6	103	80	36, 59, 80	− 24		Hand	do			Drinking	
Piqua	200 yards SE	W. J. Curtis	4	68	30	None.	− 27	7	do	Hard; some sulphur.	None	Winchester.	Domestic	
Scott County.														
Donerail	1½ miles W	Sidney S. Moore.	4	127			− 80		Force	Mild sulphur	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Georgetown		Judge Askew	5	70	70				Hand	Hard				
Do	1 mile N	do	4	127	127		− 37		Windmill			do	do	Large supply.
Do	1 mile NE	John H. De Garis.	8-6	700			− 12			Sulphur	None	do	do	Not used.
Do		Warren Dennis	6	90+	85	28	− 45		Gasoline engine.	Hard	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1 mile S	Georgetown Cemetery.		92					do	Hard; some sulphur.		do	Stock, irrigation.	

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Do	6½ to 9 miles N.	Buford Hall	3	59, 57				− 40±		do	Hard, sulphur.		ter (?).	
Do	do	do	3	100, 70, 50+				− 40±		do	do		do	do
Do	4 miles NW	Norman Hambrick.	8	100	93	None.		− 65		Hand	do	Large supply.	Lexington	Domestic, stock.
Do	4 miles N	Uriah Hambrick	4½	98		None.		− 18		do	Sulphur	None	do	do
Do	1 mile N	Nuns of Visitation.	12	107	107			− 20	60		Slight sulphur.		do	Domestic.
Do	1 mile S	R. B. Thomas	4	141	137	None.		− 55	6	Windmill.	Hard	None	do	Stock
Do	1 mile SW	do	4	141	141	None.		− 85		do			do	Drinking, stock.
Newtown	2 miles W. of S.	H. S. Booker	5	65				− 12	2	do	Hard, sulphur.		do	Domestic, stock.
Do	2½ miles E	Elbert Hall	6	180	180	None.				Hand	Soft		do	do
Do	1½ miles W	Reuben Offutt	6	112	100	None.				do	Sulphur		do	Stock
Do	100 yards E	Public well	7	70	65	None.		− 30		do	do		do	Domestic, stock.
Do	100 yards W	George D. Sallee	6	50	35	None.		− 30		do	Hard	None	do	Domestic, stock, boilers.
Do	do	do	6	70	60	None.		− 40		do	do	do	do	Domestic, stock.
Do	75 yards E	H. D. Williams.	6	57	50	40		− 30		do	Sulphur	do	do	do
Paynes Depot	3 miles NE	J. C. Cantrell	4	133	120				60		Hard		do	do
Sadieville	30 yards SW	Town	6	188				−112	3+	Hand	Hard, iron, sulphur.		Winchester	do
Stamping Ground.	5½ miles NE	D. S. Alsop	4	106	100	15		− 26		do	Salt and sulphur.		Lexington	Drinking, stock.
Do	4 miles NW	J. O. Fluke	5	110							Hard, strong sulphur.		do	
Do	2 miles NW	Joseph Foree	5	70	60	None.		− 53		do	Hard, sulphur.	Large supply.	do	Domestic, stock.
Do	2 miles NE	John T. Noel	6	60	52	None.		− 18		do	Strong sulphur.		Winchester (?).	do
Do	1½ miles NW	do	5	60	52	None.		− 18	6	do	do	None	Winchester	do
Do	2½ miles NW	Dr. R. S. Payne.	5	70	65	None.				do	Hard		Lexington	do
Do	Opposite center.	George D. Sallee	6	60	55	None.		− 25			do	Slight	do	Drinking.
Do	¼ mile E	do	6	85	80	None.		− 25		Hand	do		do	Domestic.
Shelby County.														
Shelbyville	1¾ miles W	John A. Middleton.	4½	155	90	None.				do	do		Maysville	Drinking.
Do	2 blocks SW	Shelbyville Steam Laundry.	5	60	15	None.			1+		do	Varies	do	Washing, manufacturing.
Simpsonville	2 miles W	Claude Buckley.	5½	225		None.		− 25					do	

Well dynamited, but no increase in supply.

Not used.

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Gress region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Oldham County.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Beards	1 block W	Public well	6	50	40	50	− 12	½ to 1	Hand	Hard	None	Panola	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ block N	M. A. Stoess	6	50	20	None.			do	do	do	do	do	
La Grange	½ mile S	J. W. Barrickman.		1,200	1,200					Sulphur			Drinking	
Do	4 blocks E	Stock Company.	6	1,000	Dry hole.									
Do	3 blocks E	do	6	1,500	1,200	1,100	− 25							
Pewee Valley		Mrs. L. T. Cleland.	6	65	45	None.			Hand	Hard		Panola	Domestic	
Do	1 block W	Foley Bros.	6	60	25	40+				do		do	do	
Do	200 yards NE	Kentucky Confederate Veterans' Home.	6	200	−23	None.	− 23		Hand	do	Lowers	do	do	
Pendleton Co'y.														
		J. M. Booher	6	90	85	21			Force	Salt		Lexington	Stock	
Boston Station	½ mile S	Mollie A. Edwards.	8–6	1,600	800	None.				Iron and sulphur.		St. Peter	Drinking, stock.	
Robertson Co'y.														
Mount Olivet	2½ miles S	D. R. Wells	5	54			− 30		Force	Hard		Winchester.	Drinking, stock.	
Do		John W. Zoller	6	103	80	36, 59, 80	− 24		Hand	do			Drinking	
Piqua	200 yards SE	W. J. Curtis	4	68	30	None.	− 27	7	do	Hard; some sulphur.	None	Winchester.	Domestic	
Scott County.														
Donerail	1½ miles W	Sidney S. Moore.	4	127			− 80		Force	Mild sulphur	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Georgetown		Judge Askew	5	70	70				Hand	Hard		do	do	Large supply.
Do	1 mile N	do	4	127	127		− 37		Windmill		None	do	do	
Do	1 mile NE	John H. De Garis.	8–6	700			− 12			Sulphur				Not used.
Do		Warren Dennis	6	90+	85	28	− 45		Gasoline engine.	Hard	None	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Do	1 mile S	Georgetown Cemetery.		92					do	Hard; some sulphur.		do	Stock, irrigation.	

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Do.	[illegible]	[illegible]	3	160 / 70 / 50+				– 40±		do	do		do	do	
Do.	do	do	8	100	93	None.	– 65		Hand	do		Large supply.	Lexington	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	4 miles NW	Norman Hambrick.	4½	98		None.	– 18		do	Sulphur		None	do	do	
Do.	4 miles N	Uriah Hambrick	12	107	107		– 20	60		Slight sulphur.			do	Domestic.	
Do.	1 mile N	Nuns of Visitation.													
Do.	1 mile S	R. B. Thomas	4	141	137	None.	– 55	6	Windmill.	Hard		None	do	Stock	
Do.	1 mile SW	do	4	141	141	None.	– 85		do				do	Drinking, stock.	
Newtown	2 miles W. of S.	H. S. Booker	5	65			– 12	2	do	Hard, sulphur.			do	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	2½ miles E	Elbert Hall	6	180	180	None.			Hand	Soft			do	do	
Do.	1½ miles W	Reuben Offutt	6	112	100	None.			do	Sulphur			do	Stock	
Do.	100 yards E	Public well	7	70	65	None.	– 30		do	do			do	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	100 yards W	George D. Sallee	6	50	35	None.	– 30		do	Hard		None	do	Domestic, stock, boilers.	
Do.	do	do	6	70	60	None.	– 40		do	do		do	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	75 yards E	H. D. Williams	6	57	50	40	– 30		do	Sulphur		do	do	do	
Paynes Depot	3 miles NE	J. C. Cantrell	4	133	120			60		Hard			do	do	
Sadieville	30 yards SW	Town	6	188			–112	3+	Hand	Hard, iron, sulphur.			Winchester	do	
Stamping Ground.	5½ miles NE	D. S. Alsop	4	106	100	15	– 26		do	Salt and sulphur.			Lexington	Drinking, stock.	
Do.	4 miles NW	J. O. Fluke	5	110						Hard, strong sulphur.			do		
Do.	2 miles NW	Joseph Force	5	70	60	None.	– 53		do	Hard, sulphur.		Large supply.	do	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	2 miles NE	John T. Noel	6	60	52	None.	18		do	Strong sulphur.			Winchester (?).	do	
Do.	1½ miles NW	do	5	60	52	None.	– 18	6	do	do		None	Winchester	do	
Do.	2½ miles NW	Dr. R. S. Payne	5	70	65	None.			do	Hard			Lexington	do	
Do.	Opposite center	George D. Sallee	6	60	55	None.	25			do		Slight	do	Drinking.	
Do	½ mile E	do	6	85	80	None.	25		Hand	do			do	Domestic.	
Shelby County															
Shelbyville	1½ miles W	John A. Middleton	4½	155	90	None.			do	do			Maysville	Drinking.	Well dynamited, but no increase in supply.
Do.	2 blocks SW	Shelbyville Steam Laundry	5	60	15	None.		1+		do		Varies	do	Washing, manufacturing.	
[illegible]ville.	2 miles W.	Claude Buckley	5½	225		None.	25						do		Not used.

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Trimble County.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Cottage Hill	1 mile E	Z. T. Bore	6	81	50	50	− 15		Hand	Hard			Drinking, stock.	
Milton	½ mile S	Willis Barth	6	96+	44		− 12		do	do		Richmond	Domestic, stock.	
Do	½ block N	City	3	80+	35		− 35		do	do		Alluvium	Domestic	
Do	3 miles E	Dr. S. E. Hampton.	4	86	66		− 66±	5	Windmill	do	None	do	Drinking, stock.	
Do	3 blocks NE	A. W. Lane	3	80+	40		− 20	5	do	do	do	do	Domestic, irrigation.	
Do	2 blocks E	J. W. Lane	3	80					do	Moderately hard.		Richmond	Domestic, manufacturing, stock.	
Do	3½ miles W	H. N. McIntire	6	96	40	None.	− 40	4	Deep well	do		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	4 miles S	R. M. Overton	6-5	80	60		− 20		Suction	do		do	do	
Do		Richwood Distillery, H. M. Levy.	5, 6, 8	96±	65		−60 to −65		Steam	do		do	Boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	2½ miles E	Charles Schurmeier.	6	56	49		− 26		Hand	Hard; slight sulphur and salt.	Lowered slightly.	do	Stock	
Do	½ block N	Trimble Milling Co.	4	80					Steam	Hard	None	do	Boilers	
Woodford County.														
Frankfort	5 miles S	W. A. Gaines & Co.	6	779						Hard; salt, sulphur.	do	Highbridge	Drinking, stock	
Jett	2½ miles S	Pat O'Brien	6	60	20	40	−30 to −40		Windmill and gasoline engine.	Hard		Lexington	Domestic, stock.	

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Do	1 mile S	Mrs. V. Thompson.	5	60	60		− 30		Hand	do		do			In dry weather.
Do	do	do	5	89	89		− 50		do	do		do	Stock		Never dry.
Midway	2 blocks SE	Belle of Anderson.	6	96	96		− 20	20	Steam	Hard; some sulphur.			Manufacturing.		
Do	4 blocks W	City	4	90	70				Force	Hard	None	Lexington	Domestic		
Do	Across street, Main street.	do	4	95					Hand	Some sulphur		do	do		
Do	5 blocks W	do	4	100								do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	2¼ miles S	Frank H. Hawkins.		110						Salt		do	Stock		
Do	3 blocks SW	D. Lehman	4	102						Hard		do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	3½ blocks W	R. J. McMullen		95						Sulphur		do	Stock		
Do	2¼ miles S	Nugent Bros	6	118	118		− 58		Hand	Hard; sulphur		do	Drinking		Sold for medicinal purposes.
Millville	2 miles N	E. B. Cutt	5	59			Varies,			Hard		do	do		
Mortonsville	¾ mile N	J. G. Boone	6	50+	48	None.	− 30	18	Hand	do	Unaffected when pumped 18 gallons per minute.	Highbridge	Domestic, stock.		
Do	At north	Ed. Boston	6	51	49	None.	− 33	20+	do	do	Unaffected when pumped 20 gallons per minute.	do	do		
Do	½ mile W	Marion Johnson	5	53	50	13	− 38		Force	Sulphur	None	do	Domestic, stock.		
Do	do	E. S. Sillard	6	115	75	40	− 35			Hard		do			Gas at 50 feet; never used.
Do	50 yards E	Dr. S. C. Sublett	5 or 6	75					Hand	Sulphur		do	Drinking		
Do	A few rods east.	Dr. S. Q. Sublett	6	68	68				do	Hard		do	Drinking, stock.		
Nonesuch	300 yards S	J. R. Bond	4	65	45		− 45		Bucket	do		do	Domestic, stock.		
Pinckard	½ mile N	W. Sippert	5	85	80	30+	− 37		Hand	Hard; sulphur	None	Lexington	do		
Spring Station	3 miles SE	A. J. A. Alexander.		86	86	None.	− 86		Windmill	Hard		do			Not used.
Do		do	4-3	95	95				Deep well, windmill, and gasoline engine.	do		do	Drinking, stock.		Do.

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TABLE 8.—*Wells in the Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Post-office.	Direction and distance from post-office.	Owner.	Diameter of well.	Depth of well.	Depth to principal supply.	Depth to other supplies.	Height of water above (+) or below (−) the surface at well.	Yield per minute.	Kind of pump.	Quality of water.	Effect of pumping on supply.	Geologic horizon of water beds.	Use.	Remarks.
Woodford Co.—Cont'd.			*In.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	*Galls.*						
Spring Station.	2 miles SE.	A. J. A. Alexander.	....	140	140	None.	−110	.....	.....	Strong white sulphur.	.....	Lexington.	.....	Not used.
Do.	3½ miles W.	Thomas W. Hackney.	5	200	200	100	−100	.....	Elevator.	Salt, sulphur.	.....	do.	Medicinal.	
Versailles.	1 mile NW.	Charles Alexander.	5	90+	90+	.....	.....	.....	Windmill.	Hard, sulphur.	Weak stream.	do.	Domestic, stock, irrigation.	
Do.	½ mile E.	J. C. S. Blackburn.	5	124	.....	.....	.....	.....	Gasoline engine.	Sulphur.	None.	do.	Washing, stock.	The water contained both salt and sulphur. The sulphur has gradually disappeared.
Do.	800 feet N.	J. Andrew Cain.	4½	134	132	65	− 70	20	Steam.	Lime, magnesia, and zinc, alkaline.	do.	do.	Drinking, stock.	
Do.	2 miles N.	J. N. Camden, jr.	5	190	170	60	− 70	.....	Windmill.	Hard.	.....	do.	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	do.	do.	5	200	175	60, 100	.....	.....	do.	Hard, sulphur.	.....	do.	do.	
Do.	100 feet W.	City.	6	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	do.	.....	
Do.	.....	Fair grounds.	....	104	102	32	.....	.....	Hand.	Hard.	.....	do.	Drinking, stock.	
Do.	4 miles N.	Jesse Graddy.	2½–6	62	10	30	− 32	.....	Force.	Limestone.	Lowered some.	do.	Domestic, stock.	
Do.	½ mile NW.	A. T. McLeod.	5	149+	.....	30	.....	18	Gasoline engine.	Hard.	None.	do.	Domestic.	
Do.	½ mile S.	Joe S. Minary.	5	163	160	.....	− 80	.....	Hand.	Hard; slight sulphur.	do.	.....	Stock.	
Do.	½ mile SE.	H. P. Morancy.	....	130	130	None.	−130	.....	Force.	Hard.	.....	Lexington.	Domestic, stock.	Medicinal.

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Do	½ mile NW	G. B. Mosely	5	101	96	26	− 50	15	Force and gasoline engine.	do	None			
Do	4 miles SE	J. W. Newman	6	134	120				Hand	do		do	Domestic.	
Do	½ mile N	C. L. Ryley	5	180	170	75		70+	Gasoline			do	do	
Do	150 yards W	Shotwell Bros	5	75	40	26	− 26	85+	Steam	Hard	None	do	Domestic, stock, boilers, manufacturing.	
Do	½ mile S	H. C. Taylor	5	128	120	40	− 40		G a soline engine.	Sulphur water		do	Domestic, stock.	
Do	2 blocks S	Thompson-Childers-Minary Co.	5	93	50	20	− 40		do				do	
Do	½ mile NW	I. W. Wilson	5½	98	92	30			Suction	Hard	None	Lexington	do	

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QUALITY OF THE UNDERGROUND WATERS IN THE BLUE GRASS REGION.

By Chase Palmer.

INTRODUCTION.

In the summer of 1903 the writer undertook an investigation of the quality of the waters of Kentucky River in cooperation with the United States Geological Survey. The tests were continued for one year, during which period a similar study was made of the headwaters of Dix, Green, and Salt rivers, which rise in the upland near the southern limits of the Blue Grass region. A few results of this early study of Kentucky and Dix rivers are presented in this report to illustrate the hardness of two important surface streams of the Blue Grass region in comparison with that of the underground waters.

In the spring of 1905, under a similar arrangement, field assays of waters from wells and springs were made in several Blue Grass counties, and the results of that work are also embodied in this report.

In July, 1906, a more extended investigation of the underground waters of the Blue Grass region was begun, jointly with George C. Matson, of the Geological Survey. The subsurface waters from a much larger area were subjected to complete chemical analysis at Lexington, Ky., and the results of the examinations are recorded in the table of analyses on page 212.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

Thanks are due to Dr. M. A. Scovell, director of the Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station at Lexington, for affording the facilities of the chemical laboratory of the station, so that the analytical work could be carried on expeditiously within the State. It is also desired to express to Dr. A. M. Peter, chemist of the experiment station, appreciation for his uniform courtesy and hospitality while the chemical work of this investigation was in progress. The publications of the Kentucky Geological Survey and of Kentucky Agricultural Experiment Station have been consulted and use has been made of the information contained therein and originally obtained by Dr. Robert Peter and Dr. A. M. Peter, chemists of those two state institutions, respectively.

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INDUSTRIAL USES OF WATER.

IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY.

The quantity of water used in modern human industry is so vast, its applications are so varied, and its essential characteristics are so distinctive that water may be considered the most important mineral used in the industrial arts. Immense quantities of water are necessary for many manufacturing operations. Every pound of writing paper made, for instance, has required the use of no less than 40 pounds of water, and in some paper mills as much as 1,600 pounds. In selecting a location for a paper mill, therefore, it is important to see that a liberal supply of water is assured.

The quality of the water best suited for use in any particular industry is also a matter of considerable moment. An iron-bearing water can not be used in a bleachery without previous purification. A calcic carbonate water is undesirable in leather making, as it causes brown stains on the hides and may also produce a reddish leather which has a low market value. The manufacture of tanning and dyewood extracts is another important industry involving the use of enormous quantities of water. These extracts, being easily fermentable, do not keep well if made with polluted water, or water containing putrefactive bacteria.

In the arid regions of the West the scarcity of water makes it a high-priced commodity which is valued accordingly; in the East, where a plentiful supply of water may usually be obtained, little attention was formerly given to its quality, on which its real value so largely depends. Eastern manufacturers have, however, begun to realize that water used in the manufacture of products for which its quality is unsuited is expensive. Its cost may not appear in the price paid for it, but is apparent rather in the smaller yield of the products which it has helped to make, or in the low prices which they command when put upon the market. The benefits derived from the use of water which is naturally suited for a specific purpose or which has been properly treated to meet the requirements of a special operation are quickly realized in the increased quantity and value of the products obtained.

STEAM MAKING.

The engine which turns into mechanical work the energy possessed by steam has given to water a new industrial value, and the rapid advance of modern civilization is due largely to the use of water as a motive power in the form of steam. Steam making may be regarded as an industry in which the raw material is water and the finished product is steam. The quality of the water used in the boiler is of interest to the engineer because upon it the profitable production of steam in large measure depends. The life of the boiler also is in no

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small degree determined by the care taken to supply it with proper feed water. With a noncorrosive water which does not form hard scale a stationary boiler may last thirty to thirty-five years, but a corrosive water may make it useless in five years. Prevention of corrosion means protection of the boiler; prevention of scale means saving of labor, repairs, and fuel.

CORROSION AND SCALE.

The use of impure water in a steam boiler results usually in corrosion and the deposition of scale. Many waters, especially spring waters, that are comparatively free from mineral matter in solution are known to be strongly corrosive when used in steam boilers. Free acids, such as hydrochloric, sulphuric, and nitric, are very corrosive, attacking iron easily, and waters containing them must therefore be neutralized before they can safely be used for steam making. Water showing no sign of acidity before it enters the boiler sometimes develops corrosive properties when it is heated. Water containing magnesium chloride in solution, for instance, may be neutral under ordinary conditions, but at high temperatures and under increased pressure of the boiler hydrolysis occurs, forming free hydrochloric acid, which vigorously attacks the boiler shell and tubes. The magnesium oxide also formed in this action finds its way to the boiler shell where it may add itself to any scale there forming.

Scale is an incrustation deposited within the boiler during the evaporation of hard waters. The scale from calcic carbonate waters is loose and can be removed by blowing off. Calcic sulphate waters, on the other hand, form a hard tenaceous scale, the removal of which is sometimes very difficult. Hard scale conducts heat poorly, so that a hotter fire is necessary to keep up steam in a boiler thus coated. A waste of 15 to 20 per cent of fuel has been known to be caused by hard scale only 7 to 8 millimeters thick. Boilers thus overheated are liable to blister and to crack, and many serious explosions have resulted from overheating scale-lined boilers.

SALUTARY EFFECT OF SCALE.

Though a thick, hard scale is detrimental to a boiler, a thin coating of scale is often distinctly advantageous. This is especially noticeable where corrosive waters are used for making steam. Kent[a] calls attention to the fact that rain water, and even melted snow, cause pitting of the plates and more or less general corrosion. As a protection against the ravages of waters of this kind he recommends the occasional addition of a little limewater, so that a thin coating of scale may be formed. In certain parts of the United States, especially

[a] Kent, William, Corrosion produced by rain water in steam boilers: Eng. News, vol. 52, 1904, p. 198.

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in the West, the waters available for use in locomotives are not only hard but are also high in sulphates of the alkali metals. The usual practice has been to soften such waters before use by precipitating the calcium and magnesium with soda ash, and the formation of scale is prevented by this treatment, but at the same time an equivalent amount of alkaline sulphates is added to the water. Excessive quantities of alkalies in water cause foaming, and on western railroads waters softened in the manner just mentioned have made much trouble. The harder a water is before it is softened by soda ash, the larger is the quantity of alkali sulphates in the water after treatment, and consequently the greater is its tendency to foam in the boiler. M. E. Wells[a], chief boiler inspector of the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad, deprecates the practice in vogue on several railroads of softening such waters for locomotive use by adding soda ash. He quotes the following figures to show the increase in alkalies caused by treating with sodium carbonate a water used by the Chicago and Northwestern Railway from a well 70 feet deep at Council Bluffs, Iowa:

Result of treating water with sodium carbonate.

	Parts per million.
Incrustants:	
Before treatment	813
After treatment	66
Nonincrustants, mostly alkalies:	
Before treatment	106
After treatment	472

Here a hard incrusting water is changed to a foaming water. Wells states that on the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad better results are obtained with incrusting than with foaming waters. He also recommends the use of limewater as a substitute for caustic soda to remove calcium and magnesium from alkaline carbonate waters, because limewater causes no addition of alkali to the water. According to Wells, a moderate amount of scale serves to protect boilers, and this impression seems to be gaining ground among engineers who are compelled to use hard, alkali sulphate waters for steaming.

The sulphate water used in the boilers of the Hoffmann distillery, in Anderson County (see Table 14, p. 201) would probably form hard scale if precautionary measures were not taken. The boilers are cleaned frequently, care being taken to let them cool before washing them, and the scale is easily detached. The scale is not allowed to become thick or to bake into a hard, difficultly removable crust. The water from this well was used continuously during two long runs aggregating thirty-five months, and affords an excellent illustration

[a] Wells, M. E., Foaming waters and scaling waters for locomotive boilers: Eng. News, vol. 52, 1904, p. 198.

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of the favorable results that may be obtained from a hard water if intelligent care is exercised in its use.

ACTION ON BOILERS OF ORDINARY CONSTITUENTS OF WATER.

Silica and iron are both found in boiler scale and may be regarded as incrustants. Silica, however, causes very little trouble, as it is present in water in very small quantities, and the same may be said of iron, although iron derived from corrosion of the boiler is sometimes added to the scale. Aluminum also is an incrustant present in most waters in quantities so small that it is not necessary to consider it; but when too much aluminum sulphate, a substance frequently used as a coagulant in filtering water, is added in the process of filtering, the excess passes through the filter and may cause trouble in the boiler, where it hydrolyzes, forming free sulphuric acid. Sodium carbonate will correct the acidity due to an excess of aluminum sulphate, and it can be used to precipitate the aluminum as a harmless solid. Barium carbonate is a better remedy, but it is too expensive for general use. Owing to the poisonous quality of barium compounds, their use should probably be restricted to waters intended only for industrial purposes.

Calcium is the chief constituent of both hard and soft scale, but a water containing as much as 50 parts per million of calcium may be used under certain conditions without bad results. Carbonate waters containing as much as 150 parts of calcium per million might profitably be softened, but carbonate waters with that amount of calcium are usually also high in sulphates and chlorides, and it is doubtful whether such waters can be successfully treated for boiler use.

Magnesium is an incrustant appearing in boiler scale as magnesium oxide, hydroxide, and carbonate. This metal accompanies calcium in waters, but the calcium usually predominates. Magnesium can be economically removed from magnesic carbonate waters containing less than 60 parts per million of magnesium. Magnesic chloride and sulphate waters are highly corrosive because they are easily hydrolyzed in the boiler, forming respectively free hydrochloric and sulphuric acids.

The alkali metals, sodium, potassium, and lithium, are all found in water, but only sodium occurs in quantities large enough to merit consideration. As compounds of the alkalies are readily soluble they can form no permanent scale, but on the other hand they are easily hydrolyzed, forming free acids which corrode the iron. Alkali carbonate and alkali sulphate waters have, moreover, a tendency to foam and thereby interfere with the uniform production of steam. No method is known by which alkalies may be economically removed,

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so that their presence in any water in large quantity is a permanent detriment to its use in boilers.

The bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3) in carbonate waters is usually related to calcium and magnesium. These metals are supposed to be held in solution by the bicarbonate radicle, appearing respectively as $Ca(HCO_3)_2$ and $Mg(HCO_3)_2$. When a calcic magnesic carbonate water is heated the equilibrium of the two soluble constituents is disturbed; carbon dioxide (CO_2) escapes with the steam, and calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$) and magnesium carbonate ($MgCO_3$) are deposited. The calcium carbonate, soon after it is formed, becomes crystalline and incapable of adhering firmly to hot iron, so that water containing considerable quantities of these bicarbonates, unaccompanied by other incrusting constituents, may be used without danger of forming a hard crust on the boiler.

Carbon dioxide (CO_2), whether present in the free state in the water or released by the decomposition of bicarbonates, is not without corrosive action on iron. It has a tendency to cause pitting of the boiler, so that highly carbonated waters are treated more effectively before they enter the boiler than afterwards. Lime water added in proper quantity to carbonate waters eliminates both calcium and magnesium as well as the bicarbonate radicle. After allowing time enough for the precipitate to settle, the softened water may be fed to the boiler. Carbonate and bicarbonate waters of the alkalies, that is, waters containing the carbonate and bicarbonate radicles in equilibrium with sodium, are occasionally found in Kentucky and in other States farther west. When these waters are heated the alkaline carbonates react chemically with the alkaline earth constituents, causing removal of the latter. Chlorides in water are simply corrosive. Excessive amounts of chlorides are undesirable, and waters containing over 100 parts per million of chlorine are unsuitable for boiler use. Organic matter causes foaming and sometimes it acts corrosively. Its corrosive action is due to the formation of free organic acids to which iron is susceptiible.

Calcic sulphate waters deposit a hard scale, the chief component of which is calcium sulphate. Magnesium sulphate waters are objectionable because they not only corrode the boiler by producing free sulphuric acid in the water, but they also deposit magnesia in the scale, thereby increasing its hardness and making it very refractory. As sulphates of the alkalies, besides hydrolyzing and causing corrosion, also induce foaming in boilers, large quantities of such sulphates are undesirable. No perfectly satisfactory method has yet been devised for removing the sulphate radicle from waters of this character.

Deep-seated waters are usually so highly mineralized that they corrode iron rapidly or form scale in boilers; occasionally, however,

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such waters are found to be very satisfactory. The water from a well at the Lexington station of the Cincinnati Southern Railway (analyses 23 and 24, p. 212) affords a good illustration of a highly mineralized deep water containing also correctives of hard scale.

This water was found on analysis to contain sufficient calcium, magnesium, and sulphates to form a hard, refractory scale under ordinary conditions, but it was also charged with carbonates of the alkalies. The analyst, Dr. Robert Peter, predicted that these carbonates would precipitate the incrustants in powdery form, thus preventing the deposition of calcium sulphate as a hard scale on the boiler shell,[a] and his assertion that the water could be used in boilers without harmful effect was verified by experience. Another example of water of similar character is furnished by the well at Hope Mills. This well, 134 feet deep, yields water from two horizons, one at a depth of 65 feet and the other at 132 feet. During wet weather, while the 65-foot stream flows, the water forms hard scale in the boilers; during dry weather, when the water is drawn from the lower stratum, the scale formed is soft. The water from the 132-foot vein is not only soft but is said to loosen boiler scale caused by the hard water from the upper vein. Water from a well at Paint Lick, in Madison County (analysis 56, p. 214), though much more highly mineralized than that from the well of the Cincinnati Southern Railway at Lexington, has been used for many years in a steam boiler without forming much scale. The presence of carbonates of the alkalies in the water at Paint Lick probably accounts for the small amount of boiler scale. A well water in Gallatin County (analysis 49, p. 212) illustrates the character of waters found in some places in the alluvium. It contains 16 parts per million of sulphates—a quantity which should cause little trouble in boilers—and it carries also carbonates of the alkalies which precipitate the incrustants, so that when heated the water should completely soften itself and should form no bad boiler scale.

CORRECTIVES OF SCALES.

Hard scales formed by sulphate waters may be prevented by treating the waters with certain substances which precipitate the incrusting constituents in a loose, powdery condition. Sodium carbonate, an agent frequently employed for this purpose, precipitates the calcium as calcium carbonate, which forms a loosely adhering scale if the water is treated after it enters the boiler. As soda ash does not remove the sulphate radicle, the presence of which is undesirable in boiler water, the use of this chemical is only a partial remedy in waters naturally forming hard scale. Barium

[a] Peter, Robert, Well water: Geol. Survey Kentucky, vol. 5, new ser., 1880, pp. 188-190.

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chloride may be used instead of sodium carbonate in the treatment of sulphate waters. Although this compound causes the precipitation of the sulphate radicle in a form that does not produce scale, it leaves chlorides in the water, and owing to their corrosive action, high chlorides are undesirable in boiler waters. Barium carbonate is especially suited for removing iron, aluminum, and sulphates from waters, but it is rather too expensive for general use. Hard carbonate waters are most satisfactorily softened by means of milk of lime, which precipitates both calcium and magnesium in powdery form.

Not uncommonly scale preventive is added to the water in the boiler, but it is always better to soften water in tanks before it enters the boiler and to allow sufficient time for the precipitate to settle. Water softened in this way is used to better advantage in making steam, and the boiler is relieved of the extra duty of serving as a water-softening plant.

Many specifics for preventing and removing boiler scale are on the market, some of them being helpful, but others of little value, though the vendors use persuasive arguments in presenting the merits of their wares. Care should be exercised, however, not to use the wrong kind of boiler compound, as more harm may be caused by it than by the untreated water itself.

SOAP MAKING.

In the processes most commonly used soap is made by the chemical action of soda lye (caustic soda) on melted fat. The soap, being easily soluble, is dissolved by water as soon as it is formed, so that a fresh layer of fat is exposed uninterruptedly to the soda-lye solution. The value of soap as a cleansing agent is due to the fact that it forms in water a solution capable of producing suds; therefore anything that changes soap into an insoluble substance reduces just so far its value as a cleansing agent. Hard waters—calcium and magnesium waters—produce with ordinary soap a curdy precipitate of calcium and magnesium compounds that are insoluble in water and incapable of forming suds, and consequently are valueless as cleansing agents. If hard water is used in soap making the calcium and magnesium present react with the soap as soon as it is formed, making an abundant precipitate, which retards the further action of the soda lye on the fat and wastes soap. The precipitate will continue to be formed at the expense of the soluble soap until the calcium and magnesium in the water are entirely removed. Small quantities of the hardening constituents of water can decompose a large quantity of soap.

One requisite, therefore, for a large yield of soap is soft water. If hard water is the only kind available for soap making, it should be

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softened before use in the works; if not softened beforehand, it will be softened afterwards by the soap, and soap is an expensive water softener.

Sodic chloride waters are undesirable in soap making, because soap is not soluble in solutions of sodium chloride, and briny waters also prevent the free access of the lye to the melted fat. Indeed, advantage is taken of the insolubility of soap in brine when it is desired to remove the soap from solution. Salt is added to the soap solution and the soap then separates out as a solid mass.

Clear water must be used in the manufacture of soap. Suspended matter of all kinds must be removed from the water by filtration to insure the production of a pure, fine-grained product.

LAUNDERING.

The development of the steam-laundry industry has been rapid in recent years, and public service of this character is becoming more and more general. The most important laundry supplies are water and soap, for the combined cost of all other materials consumed in scouring, brightening, and sizing is less than the total cost of soap and water. The prudent launderer buys high-grade soap, because he knows that not only are better results obtained with soap of good quality than with that of inferior grade, but also that his soap bill is correspondingly reduced. It is just as important in laundering to use water of good quality as it is to use good soap. The water should be clear, soft, and free from iron and suspended matter. If the water is muddy or turbid it must be filtered before it can be used.

After the goods are received at the laundry they are soaked in cold water for a short time to remove stains and loosen the starch. At the end of the soaking period steam is admitted to raise the water to the boiling point, the necessary quantity of soap is added, suds are formed, and the washing begins. If the water is hard a wasteful expenditure of soap takes place at this stage. The calcium and magnesium in solution react with the fat acids of the soap, precipitating the insoluble curdy soaps of calcium and magnesium. No suds are formed, and the whole operation of cleansing is delayed until the calcium and magnesium are completely precipitated.

The loss of soap is not the only evil effect of hard water. The precipitated earthy soaps act as coagulants, seizing mechanically upon impurities which are thus often deposited on the fiber of the goods. These plasters adhere to the goods, appearing finally as greasy spots on the laundered material. Hard water is therefore undesirable for laundry use, economically as well as æsthetically.

The water used in all stages of the cleansing process must be as free as possible from iron, as brown stains on the finished product are

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likely to result from the use of water containing iron to the extent of even one part per million.

The hardness due to calcium and magnesium bicarbonates may be removed by a judicious use of lime water, but the permanent hardness is not reduced in this way. Soda ash (sodium carbonate) is well suited for this purpose, and may be applied after the water has been treated with lime. Hardness due to compounds of calcium and magnesium other than the bicarbonates is thus removed. After sufficient time has been allowed for settling the clear water may be used for washing. The tendency of waters containing alkalies to foam in boilers—a feature that makes carbonates of these metals so undesirable in feed water—is of decided advantage to the laundry water. Carbonates of the alkalies are said to "thicken" the soap, increasing its power to emulsify oily material, thus adding to its cleansing qualities. For this reason the usual practice is to add sodium carbonate to the water with the soap merely to strengthen the soap.

The hardness of water is usually expressed as parts per million by weight of calcium carbonate; water having a hardness of 100 parts per million, for instance, is understood to be water containing 100 pounds of calcium carbonate in 1,000,000 pounds of water. Theoretically 100 pounds of calcium carbonate require for removal 61 pounds of high-grade commercial quicklime, 112 pounds of soda ash, or 860 pounds of soap. Assuming the cost of these reagents to be, quicklime, 0.3 cent; soda ash, 1.25 cents; and soap, 5 cents per pound, the cost of softening a quantity of water containing 100 pounds of calcium carbonate would be, with quicklime, $0.18; with soda ash, $1.40; with soap, $43.

Whipple[a] has experimented on waters of different degrees of hardness to determine their effect on the quantity of soap used in bathing and for general household purposes. He finds that 1 pound of the average soap used in the household will soften 167 gallons of water having a hardness of 20 parts per million. This is equivalent to about 5,990 pounds of soap per million gallons, which, at a cost of 5 cents a pound, would amount to $300 per million gallons. He also finds that the cost increases about $10 per million gallons of water softened for each increase of one part per million of hardness.

It is often asked whether the quantity of soap consumed by a hard water is an item of expense worthy of serious consideration in laundries, which require daily many thousands of gallons of water in which soap is used. This question is best answered by a practical illustration. Let it be assumed that a laundry is using daily 10,000 gallons of water having a hardness of 96 parts per million—the average hard-

[a] Whipple, G. C., The value of pure water: Wiley & Sons, 1907, p. 24.

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ness of Kentucky River below Tyrone. According to Whipple's experiments, the hard water causes a loss of average soap amounting to about $10.70 a day. In three hundred working days the annual consumption of soap by the hard water alone would amount to $3,210. If, however, the water were previously softened with lime to reduce its hardness to 30 parts per million (the average permanent hardness of the river), then the daily cost of soap consumed by the laundry water would be only $4.10. After adding to this amount 1 cent for the lime required for the softening, the total daily cost of the partly softened water becomes approximately $4.11. This partial softening of the water, therefore, results in a saving of soap cost of $6.59 a day, or a total annual saving of $1,977. No claim is here made for the absolute accuracy of these figures in estimating the cost of softening water. The size and capacity of the softening plant, cost of labor and fuel, attendance at the works, difficulties arising from turbidity, variable content of magnesium, and other conditions of the water to be softened, must be considered. The computations indicate, however, that there is much room for economy by softening the water before its use, and they suggest, moreover, the practicability of installing mechanical devices to make the natural water more economical in its consumption of soap.

ICE MANUFACTURE.

The rapid gain in popular favor which artificial ice has made in this country in recent years is shown by the reports of the United States Census. In 1870 there were in the United States only four ice factories, with a total capitalization of $434,000, and the total ice output for that year was valued at $258,250. In 1905 reports were recived from 1,320 establishments, indicating a capitalization of $66,592,001, and the total output of ice was valued at $23,790,045. These figures do not include 163 establishments engaged primarily in manufacturing other products, which are reported to have made $1,899,912 worth of ice.

It is important that the water used in the manufacture of ice for household purposes and for cooling beverages should meet all the requirements of potable water in respect to cleanliness and freedom from organic matter and disease germs. Most American manufacturers use distilled water in making ice, in order to get a pure, transparent product.

Two systems are employed in making artificial ice in this country. These are the can and the plate systems. Though cakes of ice frozen from impure water by the can system may be for the most part clear, the center of the block is likely to be opaque. Drown[a] has shown that the interior of the block contains most of the impurities that

[a] Drown, T. M., Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board of Health, 1892, p. 592.

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were originally distributed through the water. At a certain ice factory known to the writer the core containing the concentrated impurities is cut from the block and allowed to melt, and the liquid product is served to the employees as a preventive of intestinal disorders! It is needless to say that this ice factory is not in Kentucky.

In the plate system, which is becoming more and more popular in this country, it is not necessary to use distilled water in order to obtain clear ice if suitable appliances are installed to prevent the occlusion of air and solid particles. Though it is true that the greater part of the bacteria and mineral matters in the raw water are excluded from the frozen plate, there is insufficient ground for assuming that perfectly harmless ice can be made directly from dangerously polluted water. And while it may be conceded that water pure enough for drinking is pure enough for making ice, it is nevertheless true that too much dependence should not be placed upon the natural purifying powers of the freezing process.

Water serves another purpose in the ice factory beside that of being the raw material for the ice and the steam. Much heat is absorbed by the ammonia which has been used for freezing the water, and advantage is taken of the cooling effect of water to assist in recovering the exhaust ammonia for subsequent use. In the compression system the pipes containing compressed gaseous ammonia are surrounded by cold water constantly flowing in large tanks, or the cold water is sprinkled directly upon the ammonia pipes. In both processes the water absorbs heat from the ammonia, changing it from the gaseous to the liquid form. Water charged with incrustants deposits on the hot ammonia pipes a scale closely resembling the scale formed by the same water in a boiler. Sometimes this scale is very hard and tenacious, and if it is allowed to remain on the pipes, it may become so thick as practically to nullify the cooling effect of the water.

BREWING AND DISTILLING.

The water used in breweries should receive careful attention, because the quality of the beer depends largely upon the quality of the water. In general, a good potable water, free from color, odor, and decomposing organic matter may be used to advantage for brewing. Clean water is indispensable in a brewery. Waters polluted with sewage or putrefactive bacteria should be avoided, for they prevent the beer from keeping well and give it a disagreeable taste. Great care must also be taken to use perfectly clean water in washing the kegs and barrels in which the beer is to be stored. Organic matter in the water is objectionable, as it is likely to promote the growth of mold in the barley, thus preventing a proper development of diastase in the malted grain. In the later stages of the brewing

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process organic matter in the water is undesirable, because it not only lessens the activity of the yeast, but also forms putrefaction products that seriously affect the quality of the beer.

Water used in brewing should be as free as possible from iron, which combines directly with diastase, forming an insoluble compound and thus reducing the efficiency of the ferment; moreover, iron waters impart an unpleasant taste to the beer. Iron may be removed from water easily and cheaply by forcing air through the water and then filtering it through sand and gravel. The iron hydroxide, which is precipitated by the aeration, is retained completely on the filter. Sodic chloride waters, if not too strong, favor the development of diastase and are therefore of decided advantage in malting. Magnesic chloride waters act similarly. On the other hand, calcic chloride waters are to be avoided because they retard the development of yeast. Calcic and magnesic sulphate waters, which are undesirable for boiler supplies, soap works, and certain other industries, are of distinct advantage to the brewer. Such waters assist the development of the yeast and produce beers of agreeable flavor and good keeping qualities. Soft waters dissolve from the hops a resin which darkens the color of the beer. Calcium sulphate waters do not dissolve hop resin, and thus produce a light-colored beer. Many brewers who have no supply of natural calcium sulphate waters treat with calcium sulphate the waters used in fermentation, regulating the quantity of the mineral to the kind of beer to be brewed.

Table 9 shows the amounts of some of the important constituents in the waters used in brewing three famous kinds of beer—the light Burton ales, the dark Dublin porters, and the beer of the Hofbräuhaus in Munich. Probably the chemical composition of the water supplies influences the essential characteristics of these beverages.

TABLE 9.—*Composition of waters used for brewing.*

[Parts per million.]

	Burton-on-Trent, England.	Dublin, Ireland.	Munich, Germany.
Iron (Fe)	.....	2	Trace.
Calcium (Ca)	370	100	72
Magnesium (Mg)	88	3.7	53
Sulphate (radicle (SO_4)	895	44	55
Chlorine (Cl)	34	16	35

In distilleries the malting and fermenting processes are carried much farther than in brewing. What has been said regarding the effects produced by waters of different kinds in brewing applies with equal force to the corresponding processes in a distillery; but

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since the object of the distiller is to get the largest possible yield of alcohol from the grain, it is important that the water used in the fermentation vats should contain in proper quantities only those substances which are favorable to a vigorous growth and a high efficiency of the yeast plant. The waters of the Blue Grass region, which have long been recognized as being specially suited for making whisky, also produce beer of superior grade.

COMPARATIVE HARDNESS OF BLUE GRASS WATERS.

Economically, hardness is an important quality of water, whether it is used industrially or in the household. The chief difference in the character of the hardness of underground and river waters of the Blue Grass region lies in the excessive alkalinity of the ground water, while the permanent hardness of the water in the lower part of Kentucky River and in Ohio River at Cincinnati closely approximates the permanent hardness of the waters of the Lexington limestone and of the alluvial deposits. The hardness of 16 waters from springs and shallow wells occurring in the Lexington limestone and from 7 wells in the alluvium of Ohio and Licking rivers is shown in Tables 10 and 11. The alkalinity was determined in the regular course of analysis, while the permanent hardness has been calculated from the amounts of calcium and magnesium in the form of salts other than carbonates. The figures indicate that the alluvial waters are somewhat harder than the waters of the Lexington limestone, both in respect of permanent hardness and of alkalinity.

TABLE 10.—*Hardness of the water from springs and shallow wells in Lexington limestone*

[Parts per million as $CaCO_3$. Analyst, Chase Palmer.]

No. (a)	County.	Locality.	Owner.	Source.	Alkalinity.	Permanent hardness.	Total hardness.
1	Anderson	Tyrone		Spring	224	22	246
2	do	do		do	226	35	261
20	Fayette	Lexington	Ed. Kane	Well	189	33	222
21	do	do	Aug. Belmont	Spring	234	24	258
22	do	do	Boice Grogan Co	Well	286	37	323
26	do	do	W. W. Estill	do	295	46	341
28	do	do	W. M. Field	Spring	136	20	156
32	do	do	Harkness	do	189	6	195
36	do	do	Mrs. Israel	Well	232	18	250
37	do	do	Lexington Brewing Co	do	233	18	251
40	do	do	J. E. Pepper	Spring	194	14	208
41	do	do	do	Well	238	40	278
42	do	do	Pettit	do	166	40	206
66	Scott	Georgetown	Askew	do	197	41	238
68	do	Stamping Ground.	Distillery	Spring	177	9	186
74	Woodford	Versailles	Brodhead	Well	198	24	222
	Average				213	27	240

a These numbers refer to the numbers of the analysis in the table on pp. 212-215, from which additional details may be obtained.

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TABLE 11.—*Hardness of water from alluvial wells.*

[Parts per million as $CaCO_3$. Analyst, Chase Palmer.]

No. (a)	County.	Locality.	Owner.	Source.	Alkalinity.	Permanent hardness.	Total hardness.
5	Boone	Petersburg	Boone County Distillery	90 ft. well	235	43	278
8	Bracken	Augusta	Electric Light Co	90 and 50 ft. wells.	361	55	416
9	do	do	Steam laundry	80 and 60 ft. wells.	287	20	307
12	Carroll	Carrollton	Furniture factory	Well	306	28	334
49	Gallatin	Warsaw	do	do	296	0	296
53	Kenton	Covington	Cincinnati Ice Co	do	332	51	383
71	Trimble	Melton	Richwood Distillery	do	235	23	258
	Average				293	31	324

a These numbers refer to the analysis numbers in the table on pp. 212-215, to which reference is made for further details.

The following table gives the amounts of hardening constituents found in Ohio River water at Cincinnati under varying conditions and at different stages of the river:

TABLE 12.—*Hardness of water from Ohio River at Cincinnati, Ohio.*

[Parts per million as $CaCO_3$.]

Authority.	Conditions.	Alkalinity.	Permanent hardness.	Total hardness.
G. W. Fuller a	Normal for 1896	45	33	78
Do a	Average (March 13-April 25) 1899	40	29	69
J. W. Ellms	March 21, 1902 (high water)	21	21	42
Do	September 16, 1902 (low water)	72	41	113
Average		44	31	75

a Purification of the Ohio River water, Cincinnati, 1899, p. 493.

During the period from August, 1903, to June, 1904, the waters of Kentucky River were studied by the writer at monthly intervals Eight stations were established along the river at convenient shipping points, the highest station being at Jackson, in Breathitt County, and the lowest at Worthville, in Carroll County. The collections at all stations were made from midstream except those at the Government locks at Highbridge, Tyrone, and Frankfort. The samples from the waterworks at Frankfort were collected at the intake. In this way it was sought to secure typical samples of the river water from its head waters in Breathitt County along its entire course.

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TABLE 13.—*Average hardness of water from Kentucky River, August 20, 1903, to June 3, 1904.*

[Parts per million as $CaCO_3$.]

	Alkalinity.	Permanent hardness.	Total hardness.
Jackson (11 months)	32	18	50
Beattyville (11 months)	33	19	52
Irvine (11 months)	36	26	62
Highbridge, Lock No. 7 (9 months)	55	27	82
Tyrone, Lock No. 5 (9 months)	67	33	100
Frankfort waterworks (10 months)	66	31	97
Frankfort, Lock No. 4 (10 months)	66	30	96
Worthville (11 months)	67	30	97

During the same period a similar study was made of the quality of the headwaters of Dix River at Gum Sulphur in Rockcastle County, showing alkalinity, 78; permanent hardness, 18; and total hardness, 96 parts per million as $CaCO_3$.

The progressive increase both in alkalinity and in permanent hardness in the water of Kentucky River from the mountains at Jackson until after it passes Irvine is noteworthy. The initial alkalinity of Dix River at its source in the upland of Rockcastle County is higher than the alkalinity of Kentucky River at any point in its course, and the sudden increase in the alkalinity of Kentucky River at Highbridge is probably due largely to the mingling of the more highly alkaline waters of Dix River, which enters Kentucky River a short distance above the lock at that place. Dix River is evidently an important factor in determining the mineral character of the water of lower Kentucky River, because the new degree of permanent hardness and alkalinity acquired by Kentucky River, shown by the results at Tyrone, remains practically constant throughout the rest of its course in the Blue Grass region until the Kentucky unites with the Ohio.

FIELD ASSAYS OF WATER.

During the spring of 1905 a series of assays of water from wells and springs in the Blue Grass region was undertaken to obtain general information concerning the industrial value of the underground waters in the district. An assay of water is not a complete chemical analysis, because the determinations in an assay are confined mainly to those constituents which are regarded as having an important bearing on the fitness of a water for special purposes. The methods used in making the assays are in general those devised for the U. S. Geological Survey by Leighton.[a]

[a] Leighton, M. O., Field assay of water: Water Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 151, 1905.

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Field determinations of the constituents of waters are not altogether a novelty. As early as 1854 Dr. David Dale Owen, director of the first Geological Survey of Kentucky, made many tests of waters in the field. Recognizing at that early period the importance of gaining positive information concerning the water resources of the Commonwealth, he provided himself with chemicals and apparatus for making quick tests of water. He carried these with him on his expeditions, and was thus enabled to ascertain on the spot the important characteristics of many waters of the State. In this way a much wider area was covered than would otherwise have been possible, and though the field examinations were merely qualitative, much information concerning the waters of Kentucky was obtained at a minimum cost.

When the samples of water were taken by the writer for field assay, the records of the wells were obtained and as much information as possible was gathered concerning the character of the rock through which the borings were made. Seven counties in the Blue Grass region were visited, and the results of the assays made in these counties are given in Table 14. The estimated incrustants probably approximate the total incrustants in these waters. Considering the sulphates as forming hard scale, these waters are classified in a general way according to a scale suggested by the American Master Mechanics' Association for classifying waters for locomotives boilers. Though this classification has not been generally adopted, it serves fairly well as a means of judging, within tolerably wide limits, the fitness of a water for steam making. The classification refers in no wise to the value of these waters for ordinary domestic purposes.

Classification of waters.

Incrustants:	
Below 250 parts per million	Good.
250 to 350 parts per million	Fair.
350 to 500 parts per million	Poor.
500 to 700 parts per million	Bad.

Of the 60 waters represented in the table of assays, 25 are designated good, 18 fair, 16 poor, and only 1 water is apparently so highly mineralized as to be considered unsuitable for boiler service. These results indicate that the waters in the region covered by the investigation are fairly good for industrial uses, and that with preliminary treatment they may profitably be softened so as to yield favorable results in steam boilers.

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TABLE 14.—*Field assays of water in Blue Grass region.*

[Parts per million.]

Date.	County.	Location.	Owner.	Source.	Depth of well.	Depth of water.	Turbidity.	Color.	Iron.	Chlorine.	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	SO_4 calculated to $CaSO_4$.	Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$.	Estimated incrustants.	Classification for boiler use.
1905.					*Feet.*	*Feet.*									
Apr. 12	Anderson	Hammond Creek	Hoffman Distilling Co.	Well	36	29	0	0	1.2	26	86	21	255	376	Fair. [a]
12	do	Lawrenceburg	City	3 wells	90	45	0	2	0	29	59	82	194	276	Good. [a]
15	do	County	Old Prentice Distillery	Well	65	60	0	4	0	55	Low.	50	265	315	Good. [a]
15	do	Lawrenceburg	Dowling Distillery	do	40	40	0	4	0	4	Low.	25	155	280	Good.
15	do	Tyrone	Waterfill & Frazier Distillery.	Spring			0	4	Trace.	17	59	82	259	341	Fair.
4	Boyle	Danville	Gentry & Kenney	Well	104	40	0	0	.2	93	127	178	279	457	Poor.
Mar. 4	do	do	Charles Orman	do	8	8	0	17	0	4	Trace.		71	75	Good.
3	do	do	Mrs. Emma Hazelton	do	60	50	0	4	.4	11	106	147	203	350	Poor.
3	do	do	Charles Hardesty	Spring			0	4	.3	58	13	18	197	215	Good.
16	do	do	D. F. Slavin	Well	125	125	0	7	.3	27			263	263	Good.
8	do	Forkland	A. B. Minor	do	27	26	0	6	.6	196	52	72	253	325	Fair.
8	do	do	T. M. Purdom	do	27	26	0	6	0	283	91	127	221	348	Poor.
8	do	Hankla	W. F. Powers	do	58		0	4	0	40	124	172	288	460	Poor.
16	do	Junction City	Mrs. W. T. Richardson	do	24	24	0	6	.1	97	31	44	102	146	Good.
7	do	Mitchellsburg	Town	do	25		0	9	.4	212	92	129	221	350	Poor.
8	do	Parksville	J. D. Minor	do	57		0	4	.3	762	97	136	190	326	Poor.
8	do	do	Lapp Ewing	do	100		0	2	.3	42	168	234	245	379	Poor.
1	do	Perryville	Town	do	47	47	0	4	.1	33	43	94	170	264	Fair. [a]
1	do	do	do	do	63	63	0	4	.3	30	66	93	192	285	Fair. [a]
1	do	do	J. W. Brogles	do	56	56	0	4	.2	13	55	77	189	266	Fair. [a]
4	do	Shelby City	J. S. Figg	do	22	22	0	7	.1	48	94	130	146	275	Fair.
Apr. 4	Garrard	Camp Dick Robinson	A. B. Montgomery	do	60	35	0	4	.3	6	25	35	118	153	Good.
Mar. 16	do	Boone Cave Spring		Spring			0	5	.2	8			84	84	Good.
13	do	Lancaster	Mrs. J. West	Well	8	7				44	83	116	129	315	Fair.
13	do	do	Walden Bros.	do	20		0	9	.3	71	22	30	296	326	Fair. [a]
Apr. 4	do	Marcellus	C. K. Poindexter	do	120	100	0	4	.1	57	71	99	156	255	Fair. [a]
May 20	Jessamine	Nicholasville	Town	do	120	120	2	2	.6	44	98	137	272	409	Poor.
20	do	do	C. A. Kenney	do	77	62	0	2	.5	54	113	127	2 6	393	Poor.
20	do	do	Speais & McKay	do	14	10	5	9	.3	17	42	59	188	247	Fair.
Mar. 29	Mercer	Harrodsburg	Old Jordan Distillery	do	35		0	3	.1	54	120	168	214	382	Poor.

[a] Faint odor of hydrogen sulphide.

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TABLE 14.—*Field assays of water in Blue Grass region*—Continued.

Date.	County.	Location.	Owner.	Source.	Depth of well.	Depth of water.	Turbidity.	Color.	Iron.	Chlorine.	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	SO_4 calculated to $CaSO_4$.	Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$.	Estimated incrustants.	Classification for boiler use.
1905.					*Feet.*	*Feet.*									
Mar. 29	Mercer	Harrodsburg	Electric-light plant (outside).	Well	26		0	4	Trace.	371	186	260	293	553	Poor.
29	do	do	Electric-light plant (inside).	do	26		0	0	0	11	43	60	176	236	Good.[a]
May 18	do	do	H. C. Smith & Sons	do	30		0	2	.1	19	50	70	206	276	Good.
18	do	do	G. W. Miles	do	35	35	10	2	.2	12	64	89	252	341	Fair.[a]
18	do	do	Allen & Buster	do	40	20	8	5	.2	47	113	147	203	360	Poor.
Apr. 26	Scott	Georgetown	J. N. Moreland	do	52	42	0	2	2	4	34	47	166	213	Good.
26	do	do	J. C. Porter	do	71	61	5	2	.5	9	30	42	172	214	Good.
26	do	Stamping Ground	Town (schoolhouse)	do	85	80	5	9	2.5	30	18	25	306	331	Fair.
26	do	do	Town (center)	do	60	55	5	9	2	111	43	60	327	387	Poor.
26	do	do	C. T. Duvall	do	40	35	0	4	1.2	27	61	85	179	264	Fair.
26	do	do	J. T. Noel	do	60	52	15	77	2	264	30	42	440	482	Poor.[b]
27	do	Newtown	Mrs. C. P. Pribble	do	59	54	10	6	2	278	83	116	252	368	Poor.
27	do	do	Public	do	48	40	10	4	2	80	30	42	261	303	Fair.[a]
27	do	do	H. D. Williams	do	57	40 and 50	0	19	8	42	30	42	224	266	Fair.[a]
27	do	do	G. W. Murphy	do	84	60	0	2	2	128	54	75	146	221	Good.[a]
27	do	do	Geo. D. Sallee	do	50	35	0	2	2	30	112	156	163	319	Fair.
27	do	do	do	do	70	60	0	2	2	55	124	169	414	583	Bad.
27	do	do	R. Offutt	do	112	100	0	4	8	479	24	34	166	200	Good.
May 19	Woodford	Midway	Town	do	90	70	0	0	.3	42	103	144	216	360	Poor.
19	do	do	do	do	100		0	2	.2	12	Trace.		216	216	Good.
19	do	do	M. C. Kaselbaum	do	80		0	2	.7	32	77	107	137	244	Good.
19	do	do	D. Lehman	do	102		5	2	.2	32	54	75	196	271	Fair.
1906.															
May 18	do	Versailles	Childer's Place	Spring			0	3	Trace.	6	24	34	88	122	Good.
18	do	do	D. M. Bowmar	Well	45		0	3	Trace.	12	35	49	178	247	Good.
18	do	do	Steam Laundry	do	57		0	4	Trace.	37	71	99	192	291	Fair.
18	do	do	J. T. Wilhoit	do	100		2	5	Trace.	9	50	70	145	215	Good.
18	do	do	Fair Grounds	do	107		0	24	Trace.	6	60	84	148	232	Good.
18	do	do	Edwards Spring	Spring			0	2	Trace.	9	35	49	88	137	Good.
18	do	do	Big Spring (town)	do			0	2	Trace.	9	35	49	92	141	Good.
18	do	do	Chapman	do			0	2	Trace.	9	35	49	88	137	Good.

[a] Faint odor of hydrogen sulphide.

[b] Black sulphur water.

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MEDICINAL WATERS.

GENERAL CHARACTERS.

Kentucky has long been famous for the number and great variety of its mineral springs, many of which are located in and about the Blue Grass region. A few of the well-known medicinal waters of central Kentucky deserve special mention.

Bromide waters have been recommended as sedatives and have been used successfully in the treatment of epilepsy and ulcerous affections. Iodine is a more active alterative than bromine, though, like bromine, iodine is never present in waters in large quantities. Iodide waters often produce rapid cures and find extensive application in the treatment of a wide range of chronic diseases. The Lower Blue Lick spring waters and several other iodide waters acquired fame for the cure of goitre, scrofula, and other diseases long before it was known that they contained iodine. Bromine and iodine impart to water such valuable medicinal qualities that a list of well-known springs containing these elements is given here for comparison with some of the medicinal waters of Kentucky.

TABLE 15.—*Bromine and iodine in water from various sources.*

[Parts per million.]

	Bromine.	Iodine.
Deep sea water	2,077	.....
Average ocean water	414	.....
Congress Spring, Saratoga, N. Y	115	2
Champion Spring, Saratoga, N. Y	48	3.2
Franklin Lithia, Ballston, N. Y	48	1.7
Sans Souci, Ballston, N. Y	.....	20
Jordan Alum, Va	.....	10
Iodin Spring, W. Va	11	11
Brown's Magnesian Well, Independence, Kans	182	1
Kreuznack, Germany	200	.9
Kissingen, Bitterwasser, Germany	.99	.....
Lower Blue Lick, Ky	23	.14
Upper Blue Lick, Ky	51	.13
Salt Sulphur Spring, Olympian Springs, Ky	13	Traces.

Sulphur waters are important medicinal agents, the sulphur obtained from them having a powerful effect on the liver, the mucous membranes, and the skin. An admirable description of the therapeutics of sulphur waters is given by Schweitzer,[a] who recognizes that the value of a sulphur water as a curative agent depends largely on the character of the sulphur compounds present. Free hydrogen sulphide, although, on account of its disagreeable odor, the most prominently noticeable sulphur constituent of water, appears incapable of entering the circulation, and leaves the body without having produced any material effect; on the other hand, the sulphides of the alkalies are readily taken up by the blood, where they release

[a] Schweitzer, P., Geol. Survey Missouri Rept., vol. 3, p. 36.

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hydrogen sulphide, which under these conditions produces a powerful effect upon the entire system. In a medicinal sulphur water, therefore, the sulphur should be associated with elements other than hydrogen. The Blue Lick waters of Kentucky and the Stachelberg waters of Switzerland, to both of which reference is made in the following pages, are types of medicinal sulphur waters.

CRAB ORCHARD SPRINGS.

Sulphate waters are very common in the Blue Grass region. When they are strongly sulphated, and are also highly charged with magnesium, such waters acquire decidedly medicinal properties. Waters of this kind abound at Crab Orchard, in Lincoln County, and for this reason the Crab Orchard Springs have maintained their popularity as a health resort for more than half a century. The composition of the water from Sowder's Spring was determined by Dr. Robert Peter.[a] It is analogous to that of the world-famous water at Carlsbad, Bohemia. The following comparative table shows the composition of these two waters. The Carlsbad water is somewhat weaker than the Crab Orchard water, and it is also deficient in magnesium, to which the special virtue of the American spring may be attributed.

TABLE 16.—*Composition of water from Sowder's Spring, Crab Orchard, Ky., and from the Sprudel Spring, Carlsbad, Bohemia.*

[Parts per million.[a]]

	Sowder's (Peter).	Sprudel (Gottl.).
Silica (SiO_2)	12	144
Iron (Fe)	Trace.	1.9
Aluminium (Al)	.....	6.4
Calcium (Ca)	664	110
Magnesium (Mg)	969	16
Sodium (Na)	523	1,874
Potassium (K)	134	23
Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	1,159	1,839
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	3,666	1,898
Phosphate radicle (PO_4)	.....	23
Chlorine (Cl)	606	724
Bromine (Br)	Trace.	.....
	7,153	6,661

[a] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results originally stated in hypothetical combinations.

The action of the Crab Orchard waters is analogous to that of a simple solution of magnesium sulphate (Epsom salt), which is a strong cathartic. Physicians found in practice, at an early date, that the waters from these springs are not so severe in their effects as magnesium sulphate alone; they act rather as laxatives than as purgatives. It appears that the other constituents present in the natural waters so temper the magnesium and the sulphates as materially to

[a] Kentucky Geol. Survey, 1857, vol. 2, p. 239.

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reduce their activity. Owing to the mildness of their action, the epsom spring waters are applicable to the treatment of a greater variety of diseases than is the case with the simple solution of magnesium sulphate.

The epsom spring waters of Crab Orchard have been used extensively in the manufacture of salts at one time sold as a cathartic. The composition of the salts from Sowder's Spring, as determined by Dr. Robert Peter,[a] shows the general character of the salts obtainable from the epsom springs of this locality.

Composition of salts from Sowder's Spring.

Magnesium sulphate	63.19
Sodium sulphate	4.20
Potassium sulphate	1.80
Calcium sulphate	2.54
Sodium chloride	4.77
Calcium, magnesium, and iron carbonates and silica	.89
Bromine	Trace.
Waste and loss	22.61
	100.00

KIDDVILLE EPSOM WATER.

A magnesic water bearing a close resemblance to the epsom waters at Crab Orchard occurs at Kiddville in Clark County (analysis 14, p. 212). The Kiddville magnesium water is more highly sulphated and contains magnesium and calcium in larger proportions.

OLYMPIAN SPRINGS.

Olympian Springs, in Bath County, have long been famous as a watering place, and the locality is still held in high esteem as a health resort. In general, the waters at Olympian Springs are distinctly ferruginous, and one water combines the qualities of a magnesic sulphate water with ferruginous properties. Among these springs are black-sulphur waters, white-sulphur waters, and a very strong salt-sulphur water. The salt-sulphur spring water, analyzed by Robert Peter in 1877,[b] was found to be alkaline and borated, and to contain as much as 13 parts per million of bromine and traces of iodine.

The Olympian Springs salt-sulphur water is used advantageously in the bath, and it is recommended as a valuable remedy in the treatment of skin diseases. A close resemblance between the quality of this Olympian Spring water and that of the Kaiserquelle at Aix la Chapelle was observed by Peter, and the composition of these two waters is reproduced for comparison.

[a] Loc. cit.

[b] Kentucky Geol. Survey, Chemical Analysis A, vol. 1, 1884, p. 365.

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TABLE 17.—*Composition of water from salt-sulphur springs at Olympian Springs, Ky., and Aix la Chapelle, Germany.*

[Parts per million.[a] Analysts: Peter (Olympian Springs) and Liebig (Aix la Chappelle).]

	Olympian Springs.	Aix la Chapelle.
Silica (SiO_2)	23	66
Iron (Fe)	1.2	4.4
Aluminum (Al)	.4	Trace.
Barium (Ba)	9	.....
Strontium (Sr)	2.6	.1
Calcium (Ca)	89	63
Magnesium (Mg)	42	15
Sodium (Na)	1,934	1,421
Potassium (K)	19	69
Lithium (Li)	.1	0.03
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	Trace.	.....
Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	329	1,023
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	5.8	276
Chlorine (Cl)	3,081	1,599
Bromine (Br)	13	3.3
Iodine (I)	Trace.	Trace.
Borate radicle (B_4O_7)	Trace.	.....
Sulphide radicle (S)	Trace.	14
Organic matter	34	75
	5,584	4,628

[a] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results originally stated in hypothetical combinations.

ESTILL SPRINGS.

The Estill Springs, at Irvine, Estill County, are situated in one of the most picturesque localities of the State. Within easy reach of Kentucky River and close to the mountains, the surroundings are unusually attractive. A commodious hotel and well-kept grounds add to the natural advantages of the place. The several springs supply red-sulphur, white-sulphur, black-sulphur, and chalybeate waters, all of which, except the last, are reported to contain hydrogen sulphide. The iron is deposited from these waters soon after collection, so that their full virtue is realized only by treatment at the springs.

The red-sulphur water deposits ferric hydrate, the color of which has given the name to the water. Black ferrous sulphide is deposited from the black-sulphur water, and from the white-sulphur water a white deposit of sulphur is formed.

TABLE 18.—*Composition of Estill Springs waters.*[a]

[Parts per million.[b] Analyst, Dr. Robert Peter.]

	Red sulphur.	White sulphur.	Black sulphur.	Chalybeate.
Silica (SiO_2)	6.8	4.0	13	32
Iron (Fe)	.....	.....	48	15
Aluminum (Al)	.....	8.5	3.6	.....
Calcium (Ca)	81	121	45	148
Magnesium (Mg)	26	25	11	47
Sodium (Na)	99	52	26	7.4
Potassium (K)	42	32	7.6	4.9
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	197	24	108	72
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	176	152	67	350
Phosphate radicle (PO_4)	.....	Trace.	.....	.....
Chlorine (Cl)	5	5.5	22	5.5
Organic and volatile matter	40	50	59	141
	715	696	410	896
Free carbondioxide (CO_2)	325	360	263	269
Free hydrogen sulphide (H_2S)	4.5	3	35	0

[a] Geol. Survey Kentucky, 1st ser., vol. 4, p. 143.
[b] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results orginally stated in hypothetical combinations.

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KEO-ME-ZU SPRINGS.

The Keo-Me-Zu Springs, located in Kenton County, about 10 miles south of Cincinnati, have recently attracted favorable consideration as affording excellent mineral waters. They consist of three springs, all of the alum-chalybeate variety, and are well charged with free carbon dioxide. The composition of the Keo-Me-Zu Spring waters is given in the following table:

TABLE 19.—*Composition of Keo-Me-Zu Spring waters.*

[Parts per million.[a] Analysts, Karl Langenbeck and Louis Schmidt.]

	Alpha Spring.	Bonanza Spring.	Climax Spring.
Silica (SiO_2)	26	90	15
Iron (Fe)	12	12	0.8
Aluminum (Al)	3.8	32	7.7
Manganese (Mn)	.....	.2	Trace.
Calcium (Ca)	115	282	167
Magnesium (Mg)	23	18	19
Sodium (Na)	63	20	22
Potassium (K)	7.7	2.1	4.6
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	248	388	260
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	125	370	114
Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	4.4	.....	.....
Chlorine (Cl)	7	6.5	2.2
Organic and loss	.....	2.2	Trace.
	632	1,257	610

[a] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results originally stated in hypothetical combinations.

LOWER BLUE LICK SPRINGS.

These celebrated saline-sulphur springs, located near the north bank of Licking River in Nicholas County, were known to the first settlers of Kentucky. The Indians and the pioneers of the State were in the habit of visiting the springs in order to procure the salt with which their waters were richly impregnated. The medicinal virtues of these waters were also recognized at an early date, and they have been regarded as efficacious in the treatment of scrofula, chronic rheumatism, gout, engorgements of the liver, and chronic skin diseases.

The first quantitative analysis of the Lower Blue Lick waters was made by Robert Peter, and the report of the first Geological Survey of Kentucky, published in 1850, contains an interesting account of his elaborate investigation of the composition of these remarkable spring waters. Several important characteristics of these waters were disclosed by this early study. They were found to be not only strongly saline, but alkaline, and to have the additional value of being moderately strong alkaline sulphated waters. The presence of bromine and iodine was also discovered, and quantitative determinations of these two elements were made.

This early analysis includes also determinations of the gaseous constituents of the waters. Free carbon dioxide and hydrogen sulphide dissolved in spring waters begin to escape as soon as the water

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is exposed to the air, and, in order to ascertain the quantities of these two gases present in the water when it reaches the surface, it is necessary to make the determinations at the spring.

By the improved volumetric methods and with the modern appliances now in daily use, determinations of these gases may be made in the field as rapidly and as accurately as in the chemical laboratory. At the time, however, when this analysis was made, such refinements were unknown, and the manner in which Peter was enabled to ascertain the exact quantities of hydrogen sulphide and carbon dioxide present in the waters at the fountain head exemplifies his resourcefulness in procuring accurate chemical results under the most unfavorable conditions.

The method used by him was to add to a measured volume of the water at the spring a solution of a chemical capable of acting at once upon the gas, forming with it an insoluble powder; then to seal the bottle and subsequently to determine in the laboratory the quantity of the precipitate formed in the water at the spring.

The hydrogen sulphide was fixed by means of a solution of arsenious acid in hydrochloric acid, and the carbon dioxide was similarly precipitated as calcium carbonate by an ammoniacal solution of calcium chloride.

A second analysis of the Lower Blue Lick waters was made by Peter in 1877. The object of his examination at this later date was to ascertain whether these waters had undergone any essential change in their character during the twenty-seven years since the first analysis, and to discover, if possible, the presence of elements more rarely occurring in waters. The second analysis developed the fact that the waters had suffered no material change since the time of the first analysis, and disclosed the presence of minute amounts of barium, strontium, and lithium, also notable quantities of borates and alkaline sulphides, the latter indicating that sulphur is present in these waters in at least two different conditions. The results of this analysis appear in the second column of Table 20.

According to a recent classification of mineral waters proposed by Haywood, the Lower Blue Lick water may be designated as a sodic, muriated, saline, alkaline (sulphide), borated (bromide, iodide), carbondioxated, sulphureted water.

The alkaline sulphide character of the Lower Blue Lick water is comparable with that of the water of the Stachelberg Spring in Switzerland, one of the famous healing springs of Europe. On account of its remarkable curative power, its waters have been prescribed by physicians ever since the latter part of the eighteenth century. The analytical results of an exhaustive study of the

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achelberg Spring water, made in 1854 by Simmler,[a] are reproduced the sixth column of Table 20. To simplify the comparison of the aters of these springs, the results obtained by Simmler are reduced ionic form. Simmler observed that the quantity of sulphur in the rm of hepatic sulphur, or alkaline sulphide, in the Stachelberg water not constant, but varies within tolerably wide limits. For instance, found that the sulphur present in the alkaline sulphides on four fferent occasions was, summer 1853, 57; winter 1853, 54; spring 854, 63; summer 1854, 61 parts per million. The Stachelberg pring water contains notable quantities of this sulphide sulphur, hich makes this water still more powerful as a sulphur water; ough the Stachelberg water contains more absorptive sulphur than as been observed in the Lower Blue Lick, the latter is far more ghly mineralized and appears to have additional curative power account of other saline constituents.

For several years past the supply of Blue Lick waters for shipment reported to have been obtained from a spring on the south side of icking River. In 1900 A. M. Peter made partial analyses of the aters obtained simultaneously from the Old Spring on the north ank and of the New Spring on the south bank of the river. The sults of these analyses, recorded respectively in the third and fourth olumns of Table 20, indicate that, although the waters from both prings appear to be somewhat weaker than the waters of the Old pring were in 1877, they still possess the same general characteristics, ven in regard to the presence of alkaline sulphides, by which both amples were colored slightly yellow. Although the alkaline sulhides are more permanent than hydrogen sulphide in water, they ecompose gradually unless the water is kept in tightly sealed bottles. n the fifth column of the same table is reproduced an analysis of a ample of the Lower Blue Lick water which had been kept about hree years in a wooden barrel.[b] The results of this analysis demontrate the inadequacy of wooden containers to preserve the alkaline ulphides for any great length of time, for at the time of the analysis very vestige of hydrogen sulphide and of the alkaline sulphides had lisappeared, indicating that during the storage in wood the water ad wholly lost the medicinal qualities which are peculiar to an lkaline sulphide water. The Blue Lick waters are applicable to the reatment of so many diseases that they have a wide range of usefulness.

[a] Simmler, Theodor, Comprehensive study of the Stachelberg Spring water: Jour. prak. Chemie, old er., vol. 71, 1857, p. 1.

[b] Haywood, J. K., Mineral waters of the United States: Bureau of Chemistry, U. S. Dept. of Agri., Bull. 1, p. 50.

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TABLE 20.—*Composition of water of Lower Blue Lick Springs, Kentucky, and of Stachelberg Spring, Switzerland.* [a]

[Parts per million.]

	Old Spring, north bank of Licking River.			New Spring, south bank of Licking River.		Stachelberg Spring (Simmler 1854).
	R. Peter, 1850.	R. Peter, 1877.	A. M. Peter, 1900.	A. M. Peter, 1900.	J. K. Haywood, 1905.	
Silica (SiO_2)	14	12	.....	.....	18	9.7
Iron (Fe)	} b 5.8	b 3.8	.....	.....	1	{ .....
Aluminum (Al)						1
Manganese (Mn)	Trace.	.....	.....	.....	2.6	.....
Calcium (Ca)	317	307	302	308	343	40
Magnesium (Mg)	135	133	132	133	179	44
Barium (Ba)	.....	.1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Strontium (Sr)	.....	.5	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sodium (Na)	3,289	3,324	} 2,746	2,812	{2,718	80
Potassium (K)	80	98			81	1.9
Lithium (Li)	.....	1			1.8	.6
Ammonium (NH_4)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.8	.....
Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	473	434	.....	.....	412	278
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	474	390	413	380	340	100
Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	.....	.....	.....	.....	2.2	.....
Nitrite radicle (NO_2)	.....	.....	.....	.....	Trace.	.....
Borate radicle (B_4O_7)	.....	23	.....	.....	Small.	.....
Phosphate radicle (PO_4)	Trace.	Trace.	.....	.....	Trace.	3.6
Chlorine (Cl)	5,462	5,558	4,925	5,120	4,900	3.4
Bromine (Br)	3.4	17	.....	.....	23	.....
Iodine (I)	.6	.3	.....	.....	.14	.....
Alkaline sulphides (S)	.....	13	Present.	Present.	(c)	58
Thiosulphate radicle (S_2O_3)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	12
Organic and loss	282	457	427	377	1.4	84
Total solids	10,296	10,558	9,026	9,315	9,022	580
Hydrogen sulphide (H_2S)	39	28	34	16	(c)	2.2
Carbon dioxide (CO_2)	355	(c)	.....	.....	257	114

[a] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results originally stated in hypothetical combinations.
[b] Includes ferric and aluminic oxides and calcium phosphate.
[c] Not reported.

UPPER BLUE LICK SPRINGS.

The waters of the Upper Blue Lick Springs, which are also situated in Nicholas County, closely resemble the waters of Lower Blue Lick. They are recommended as remedies for the same diseases as those for which the Lower Blue Lick water is prescribed. They are extensively sold.

TABLE WATERS.

In the territory covered by this investigation there are numerous other sources of wholesome water which might be made of commercial importance. Pure, safe water is wanted for table use in large cities, where a widespread prejudice exists against the city waters supplied from sewage polluted streams; and country districts, remote from congested population, are naturally regarded as the most favorable localities from which daily supplies of such water may be obtained. The ordinary pure spring waters of the Blue Grass, being but slightly mineralized, are well adapted for use as table waters, for, besides being palatable, they contain a moderate quantity of various

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saline ingredients conducive to health, and have therefore a distinctly dietetic value.

The Anita Spring and Royal Magnesian Spring in Oldham County have already acquired considerable reputation as table waters in cities where their waters have been put upon the market. The composition of the waters of these two springs is given in the following table:

TABLE 21.—*Analyses of table waters from Anita and Royal Magnesian springs.* [a]

[Parts per million.]

	Anita (L. D. Kastenbein).	Royal Magnesian (A. M. Peter).
Silica (SiO_2)	16	7.6
Iron (Fe)	.4	.6
Aluminium (Al)	.6	.....
Calcium (Ca)	35	48
Magnesium (Mg)	21	28
Strontium (Sr)	.....	Trace.
Zinc (Zn)	.....	.3
Sodium and potassium (Na+K)	2.9	1.4
Lithium (Li)	.....	Trace
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	110	142
Borate radicle (B_4O_7)	.....	Trace
Phosphate radicle (PO_4)	Trace.	.....
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	Trace.	9.4
Chlorine (Cl)	2.8	2.1
Total solids	191	242

[a] Obtained by computation to ionic form; results originally stated in hypothetical combinations.

The following waters are mentioned merely as representative of such as might find a ready market in the cities as table waters. Many others might be included in the list. The numbers at the left correspond with the numbers in Table 22, where the composition of these waters is given.

Possible table waters in the Blue Grass region.

1, 2, and 3. Springs, Anderson County.
4. Riddell well, Boone County.
6. Clark spring, Bourbon County.
12. Furniture Mfg. Co. well, Carroll County.
21. Belmont spring, Fayette County.
29. Wilson well, Fayette County.
32. Harkness well, Fayette County.
38. Madden well, Fayette County.
50. Cox well, Harrison County.
52. Kenney well, Jessamine County.

Table waters can be bottled and shipped to the cities as easily as country milk. By taking advantage of the preference in the cities for pure country waters, the owners of many Blue Grass spring waters could build up a city trade that would yield satisfactory returns.

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TABLE 22.—*Analyses of*

[Parts per

No.	County.	Locality.	Owner.	Source.	Analyst.	Date.	Depth of well (feet).
1	Anderson	Tyrone		Spring	Palmer	Oct. 15, 1906	
2	Do	do		do	do	do	
3	Do	do		do	do	do	
4	Boone	Hebron	James Riddell	Well	do	July 31, 1906	30
5	Do	Petersburg	Boone County Distillery.	do	do	Nov. —, 1906	110
6	Bourbon	Paris	W. H. Clark	Spring	do	Sept. 5, 1906	
7	Do	do	Ben Woodford	Well [a b]	do	Nov. —, 1906	50
8	Bracken	Augusta	Electric light plant	do	do	Aug. 26, 1906	96
9	Do	do	Steam laundry	do	do	do	80
10	Do	Brooksville	Cummings Brothers	do	do	do	75
11	Campbell	Newport	Old 76 Distillery	do	R. B. Dole	Apr. 8, 1907	1,250
12	Carroll	Carrollton	Carrollton Furniture Manufacturing Co.	do	Palmer	Sept. 15, 1906	98
13	Do	Sanders	Mrs. Ella Jacobs	Spring [a c]	do	do	
*14	Clark	Kiddville	J. E. Groves	Spring(?)	R. Peter	July —, 1884	
15	Do	Pine Grove	Yunger Jones	Well	Palmer	Nov. —, 1906	90
16	Do	Winchester	Reliance Manufacturing Co.	do [a b]	do	do	55
17	Fayette	Chilesburg	Dr. W. H. Felix	do [a b d]	do	Nov. 24, 1906	75
*18	Do	Donerail	G. F. Bateman	do [e]	A. M. Peter	—— —, 1898	125
19	Do	East of Hickman.	Fayette County Farm	Spring [b]	Palmer	Nov. 16, 1906	
20	Do	Lexington	Ed. Kane	Well [a b]	do	Nov. 9, 1906	76
21	Do	do	August Belmont	Spring	do	do	
22	Do	do	Boice Grogan Lumber Co.	Well	do	Oct. 24, 1906	116
*23	Do	do	Cincinnati Southern Ry.	do	R. Peter	—— —, 1884	80-90
*24	Do	do	do	Well (same).	do	—— —, 1884	153
*25	Do	do	do	do	do	—— —, 1885	800
26	Do	do	W. W. Estill	Well [b]	Palmer	Nov. 22, 1906	40
27	Do	do	R. C. Estill	do [a b d]	do	Nov. 25, 1906	225
28	Do	do	Wm. Fields	Spring [e]	do	Nov. 19, 1906	
29	Do	do	Dr. J. W. Wilson	Well [a b d]	do	Nov. 6, 1906	126
30	Do	do	J. B. Haggin	do [a b]	do	Nov. 25, 1906	198
31	Do	do	H. P. Headley	do	do	Nov. 15, 1906	50
32	Do	do	L. V. Harkness	Spring [b]	do	Nov. 2, 1906	
33	Do	do	J. H. Hisle	Well [d b]	do	Nov. 22, 1906	
34	Do	do	Mrs. Columbia Innes	do [a b]	do	Nov. 18, 1906	225
35	Do	do	Mrs. E. L. Israel	do [d]	do	Nov. 2, 1906	28
36	Do	do	do	do	do	do	28
37	Do	do	Lexington Brewing Co.	do	do	Oct. 23, 1906	150
38	Do	do	J. E. Madden	do. [a]	do	Oct. 2, 1906	
39	Do	do	Old Tarr Distillery	Spring	do	Nov. —, 1906	
40	Do	do	Jas. E. Pepper Distillery.	do	do	Nov. 18, 1906	
41	Do	do	Jas. E. Pepper estate	Well	do	Oct. 22, 1906	105
42	Do	do	Wm. Pettit	do	do	Nov. 9, 1906	65
*43	Do	do	Phoenix Hotel Co	do. [b]	A. M. Peter	June 26, 1900	
44	Do	do	Mrs. J. Will Sayre	do. [b]	Palmer	Nov. —, 1906	168
45	Do	do	W. H. Means	Spring	do	Aug. 23, 1906	
46	Fleming	Flemingsburg	Henderson & O'Bannon ice factory.	Well [a d]	do	Nov. —, 1906	162
*47	Franklin	Frankfort	Old Crow Distillery (W. A. Gaines & Co.).	do. [d]	A. Lasche	Aug. 4, 1903	790
48	Do	do	do	do. [d]	R. B. Dole	Apr. 8, 1907	790
49	Gallatin	Warsaw	Warsaw furniture factory.	do	Palmer	Aug 10, 1906	90
50	Harrison	Cynthiana	W. M. Cox	do	do	July 26, 1906	50

* Computed from hypothetical combinations.
[a] Trace of the borate radicle (B_4O_7).
[b] Trace of strontium (Sr).
[c] Much hydrogen sulphide (H_2S).
[d] Hydrogen sulphide (H_2S) present.
[e] No hydrogen sulphide (H_2S).
[f] Hydrogen sulphide (H_2S), 4.5 parts.

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waters in Blue Grass region.

million.]

Depth to water (feet).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Aluminum (Al).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium (Na).	Potassium (K).	Lithium (Li).	Bicarbonate Radicle (HCO_3).	Carbonate Radicle (CO_3).	Sulphate Radicle (SO_4).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Geologic formation.	No.
.....	9.8	Trace.	0.8	89	5.4	4.3		.....	280	0.0	16	3.5	289	Lexington .	1
.....	6.2	Trace.	1	93	6.1	4.7		.....	283	.....	25	5	296	Highbridge	2
.....	7	Trace.	1	90	7.2	6.9		.....	303	7.4	11	3.5	298	.....do.....	3
.....	13	Trace.	10	50	3.2	60		.....	274	.0	10	21	318	Glacial.....	4
90	8	Trace.	.6	76	25	9.4		Trace.	294	.0	41	5	330	Alluvium..	5
.....	1.2	Trace.	1.6	32	9.1	27		Trace.	191	.0	9.5	2	193	Lexington .	6
40	10	1.3	.5	238	36	2,990		Trace.	321	21	12	5,415	8,961	.....do.....	7
50	10	.....	.1	149	17	21		Trace.	451	.0	53	44	493	Alluvium..	8
60	17	.....	.4	101	14	17		Trace.	359	.0	14	26	350	.....do.....	9
25	6.4	Trace.	.3	76	38	169		Trace.	328	.0	88	250	857	Winchester	10
.....	14	.3	4	360	182	3,700		.....	581	.0	456	6,400	11,680	St. Peter...	11
.....	11	Trace.	.5	90	27	14		Trace.	382	.0	27	19	390	Alluvium..	12
.....	20	Trace.	.8	132	65	1,570		.....	460	.0	349	2,560	5,379	Winchester	13
.....	10	.....	.....	1,108	971	315	22	2.2	.....	243	6,622	139	9,430	Chattanooga.	*14
80	5.8	1	.3	46	20	25		Trace.	242	.0	23	14	259	Lexington .	15
.....	11	2.8	1	271	188	2,813	63	Trace.	374	.0	85	6,700	11,770	Winchester (?).	16
.....	23	1.9	3.9	81	45	421		Trace.	356	.0	21	803	1,583	Lexington (?).	17
.....	.....	.....	.....	1,433	791	10,280	188	3.7	.....	.....	302	20,610	33,667	Lexington .	*18
.....	7.2	Trace.	4.2	91	2.1	7.7		.....	254	.0	19	18	350	.....do.....	19
.....	4.8	Trace.	.6	60	14	22		Trace.	236	.0	60	6.2	295	.....do.....	20
.....	6.2	Trace.	.5	96	6.7	6.4		Trace.	292	.0	29	9.2	336	.....do.....	21
20, 50	6.2	Trace.	2	98	20	12		Trace.	357	.0	40	17	394	.....do.....	22
.....	36	Trace.	.....	20	4.4	87	5.3	.....	.....	102	41	38	332	.....do.....	*23
.....	9.4	.....	.....	21	18	92	9.2	.....	.....	124	32	74	379	.....do.....	*24
.....	4	1.5	.....	47	32	64	19	.....	.....	147	46	91	451	Highbridge	*25
35	7.8	Trace.	.4	79	37	26		.....	369	.0	66	24	424	Lexington .	26
.....	8.6	2.4	.0	114	78	1,705		Trace.	390	.0	11	2,950	5,360	.....do.....	27
.....	9.4	Trace.	2	58	4.7	6.5		Trace.	170	.0	16	10	219	.....do.....	28
126	6	.8	1.6	32	20	61		Trace.	259	5.9	28	31	335	.....do.....	29
.....	8.8	.7	1.7	29	12	340		Trace.	149	.0	12	540	1,035	Lexington (?).	30
.....	6	Trace.	2	54	23	19		Trace.	235	7.7	38	13	284	Lexington .	31
.....	5.8	Trace.	1.5	74	5.1	4		Trace.	236	.0	8.5	4	266	.....do.....	32
.....	8.4	1.7	.....	44	16	27		Trace.	220	.0	24	30	291	.....do.....	33
.....	5	1.4	3	95	63	241		Trace.	632	.0	267	160	1,343	Lexington (?).	34
.....	11	4.5	.7	51	34	95		Trace.	376	.0	62	73	577	Lexington .	35
.....	5.4	1	.0	86	9.1	28		Trace.	290	.0	58	14	376	.....do.....	36
11,147	7.6	1	.0	96	8.8	17		.....	302	.0	46	5	428	.....do.....	37
.....	4.6	Trace.	.5	65	20	55		Trace.	312	.0	22	57	482	.....do.....	38
.....	6	1.1	.0	105	11	18		.....	333	.0	43	23	456	.....do.....	39
.....	9.4	Trace.	1.3	76	5.7	4.8		.....	242	.0	13	5	255	.....do.....	40
95	5.4	1	1.4	86	16	7		.....	297	.0	42	8.5	343	.....do.....	41
65	5.4	Trace.	1.3	49	20	6.8		Trace.	208	.0	39	7.1	243	.....do.....	42
.....	8	2.8	.....	92	34	67		.....	.....	166	95	104	640	.....do.....	*43
48, 168	3.8	1	1.6	86	6.7	4.4		Trace.	292	.0	4.6	6.7	315	.....do.....	44
.....	22	4.2	1.6	41	20	32		Trace.	236	.0	41	18	361	Ohio.....	45
65	7.8	1	.2	43	24	263		Trace.	349	.0	76	284	910	Maysville..	46
.....	.....	1.1	.....	57	28	410	.....	.....	65	.....	195	620	1,610	St. Peter(?)	*47
.....	12	.1	.....	54	26	501		.....	305	.0	204	640	1,596	.....do.....	48
80	13	Trace.	.6	82	19	19		Trace.	345	12	16	5	336	Alluvium..	49
45	12	Trace.	3	114	28	23		.....	351	.0	76	64	540	Lexington .	50

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TABLE 22.—*Analyses of water*

No.	County.	Locality.	Owner.	Source.	Analyst.	Date.	Depth of well (feet).
51	Harrison	Leesburg	Jas. Crombie	Well	Palmer	July 26, 1906	76
52	Jessamine	Nicholasville	C. A. Kenney	do	do	Oct. 13, 1906	75
53	Kenton	Covington	Cincinnati Ice Co.	do.[a]	do	July 11, 1906	200
54	Do	Independence	Dr. F. J. Metcalf	do	do	July 12, 1906	45
*55	Madison	Clear Creek Station.	John R. Proctor	do	R. Peter	—— —, 1880	126
*56	Do	Paint Lick	J. H. Spilman	do	do	—— —, 1858	18
57	Mason	Maysville	R. A. Carr	do	Palmer	Aug. 27, 1906	108
58	Do	Sardis	Town	do.[b c]	do	Oct. —, 1906	300
59	Nicholas	Carlisle	Carlisle Milling Co.	do.[c]	do	Aug. 13, 1906	155
60	Do	do	City	do	do	do	35
61	Owen	Owenton	Thomas & Ruth	do.[c]	do	Sept. 13, 1906	17
62	Pendleton	Butler	Doctor Huddleston	do	do	Sept. 7, 1906	30
63	Do	Falmouth	H. W. Faber	do	do	July 21, 1906	39
64	Do	Morgan	S. F. Fornash	do	do	July 24, 1906	37
65	Robertson	Mount Olivet.	John Zoller	do	do	Aug. 10, 1906	103
66	Scott	Georgetown	Judge James Askew	do	do	Oct. 4, 1906	70
67	Do	Sadieville	City	do.[b]	do	Oct. 1, 1906	188
68	Do	Stamping Ground.	J. L. Turnbull	Spring[c]	do	Oct. —, 1906	.....
69	Shelby	Shelbyville	T. J. Ramsay	do	do	Sept. 18, 1906	.....
70	Trimble	Bedford	Mrs. Mary J. Bell	Well	do	do	22
71	Do	Milton	Richwood Distillery	do	do	Nov. —, 1906	96
72	Woodford	Mortonsville	E. Boston	do.[c]	do	Oct. 10, 1906	51
73	Do	Nonesuch	B. Bond	do.[a]	do	do	40
74	Do	Versailles	Lucas Brodhead	do	do	Oct. 2, 1906	63

* Computed from hypothetical combinations.
[a] Hydrogen sulphide (H_2S) present.
[b] Trace of the borate radicle (B_4O_7
[c] Trace of strontium (Sr).

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Blue Grass region—Continued.

Depth to water (feet).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Aluminum (Al).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium (Na).	Potassium (K).	Lithium (Li).	Bicarbonate Radicle (HCO_3).	Carbonate Radicle (CO_3).	Sulphate Radicle (SO_4).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total solids.	Geologic formation.	No.
68	17	5	2.1	80	45	14		Trace.	361	.0	104	14	479	Lexington.	51
62	6.8	Trace.	1.1	102	19	30		Trace.	315	.0	82	38	469	.....do.....	52
65	9.6	Trace.	.8	130	16	16		.....	415	.0	49	25	479	Alluvium..	53
16	13	Trace.	4.8	110	34	35		Trace.	185	.0	184	105	669	Maysville..	54
.....	6	.....	....	72	14	61	56	.....	262	.0	38	89	466	Upper Cincinnatian.	*55
.....	44	Trace.	....	22	4.2	311	33	.....	363	.0	97	276	966	Lower Silurian.	*56
.....	14	Trace.	1.4	116	17	63		Trace.	398	.0	99	50	662	Alluvium..	57
.....	9.2	3.8	.0	160	89	3,260		Trace.	206	14	54	6,800	12,106	Winchester (?)	58
150	5	9.8	3.7	107	21	765		Trace.	454	.0	3.3	1,800	3,222	Winchester	59
.....	10	Trace.	2.1	184	36	29		.....	377	.0	176	130	875	.....do.....	60
.....	17	Trace.	2.2	200	24	127		Trace.	478	.0	105	264	1,202	Maysville..	61
.....	9.8	Trace.	2	71	2.8	26		.....	216	.0	35	23	296	Alluvium..	62
.....	15	Trace.	3.4	122	41	39		.....	490	.0	30	88	748		63
.....	15	Trace.	12	121	35	37		.....	430	.0	75	73	703	Maysville..	64
80	11	Trace.	.8	32	17	204		.....	539	.0	136	9.6	720		65
70	8	Trace.	1.5	73	14	6.5		.....	246	.0	39	10	373	Lexington.	66
.....	4.8	.5	2.5	48	30	280		Trace.	328	29	8.9	396	1,050	Winchester	67
.....	8.8	Trace.	1.6	69	4.4	3.8		Trace.	221	.0	9	4.7	222	Lexington.	68
.....	16	Trace.	.7	264	31	398		Trace.	600	.0	28	802	1,914	Maysville..	69
.....	17	Trace.	.4	91	20	37		.....	337	.0	11	71	465	Panola.....	70
±65	6	Trace.	.8	76	18	6.2		Trace.	294	.0	22	9.3	311	Alluvium..	71
51	7.8	Trace.	.7	59	22	54		Trace.	251	.0	87	40	439	Lexington.	72
.....	6.2	1	....	42	16	66		Trace.	248	.0	26	60	351	Highbridge	73
50	6.4	Trace.	1.2	74	8.6	7.7		.....	242	.0	28	7.7	258	Lexington.	74

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INDEX.

A. Page.

Aix la Chapelle, Germany, water of, analysis of 206
Alkali, effect of, in water 188-189
prevalence of 86
Alluvium, character and distribution of ... 14, 26
water in 14, 54-55, 74
hardness of 198
quality of 55
wells in 54-55, 161
Alum Springs, water of 88, 102
Aluminum, effect of, in boiler water 188
Anderson County, geology of 91-92
topography of 90-91
underground water of 91-92
analyses of 212-213
assay of 201
hardness of 197
wells of 92, 162
Anita Spring, water of 88, 211
water of, analysis of 211
Artesian water, principles of 63-64
Augusta, wells at 164-165
wells at, waters of, analyses of 212-213
waters of, hardness of 198

B.

Barium, use of, in boiler water 188
Beachwood Spring, water of 88
Beards, wells at 178
Bedding planes, occurrence and character of 28, 42
water movement along 42
Bedford, spring at 158
water of, analysis of 214-215
Bellevue, water supply of 84, 163
Berea College, water supply of 83, 85, 141
Berry, wells at 172
Bibliography of Kentucky waters 8-9
Big Bone Springs, water of 88
wells near 96-97
sections of 96
Blue Lick Springs, water of ... 87, 146, 152, 207-210
water of, analysis of 210
Boilers, corrosion in 186-191
Boone County, geology of 93-96
topography of 92-93
underground water of 93-97
analyses of 212-213
hardness of 198
wells in 96-97, 163
Boonesboro, salt spring near 9
Bored wells, description of 69

Page.

Boston, flowing well at 65, 66, 178
Bourbon County, geology of 97-98
topography of 97
underground water of 98-99
analyses of 212-213
wells of 163
Bowlder clay, character and distribution of. 24-25
Boyd, wells at 172
Boyle County, geology of 100-101
topography of 99
underground water of 100-102
assays of 201
wells of 163-164
Bracken County, geology of 102-103
topography of 102
underground water of 103-104
analyses of 212-213
hardness of 198
wells of 164-165
Brannon, wells at 173
Brashear, wells at 171
Brewing, water for 195-196
water for, analysis of 196
Bromine, value of, in water 203
Bromley, wells at 175
Brooksville, water of, analysis of 212-213
Bryantsville, wells at 171
Burgin, wells at 177
Butler, water of; analysis of 214-215

C.

Calcium, effect of, on boiler waters 188-189
Campbell, M. R., on Blue Grass region 7
Campbell County, geology of 105
topography of 104
underground water of 105-106
analyses of 212-213
wells of 165
Camp Dick Robinson, water of, assay of ... 201
Camp Nelson, wells at 173
Capillary action, effect of, on underground water 67
Carbon dioxide, effect of, on boilers 189
Carboniferous rocks, occurrence and character of 14, 23-24
Carlisle, water at 146, 177
water of, analyses of 214-215
Carlsbad, Bohemia, water of, analysis of ... 204
Carroll County, geology of 107-108
topography of 106-107
underground water of 107-108
analyses of 212-213
hardness of 198
wells of 165-166

Digitized by Google

Page.
Carrollton, wells at 165
wells at, water of, analysis of 212-213
water of, hardness of 198
Cartersville, wells near 126
Casings, types of 70
use of 70
Cattle, water for 11
Caverns, character and distribution of .. 29-30, 47
formation of 42-44
figure showing 43
Centerville, wells at 163
Chilesburg, water of, analysis of 212-213
wells at 166
Cincinnati, Ohio, rainfall at 58-59
water at, hardness of 198
Cisterns, description and use of 71-72
Clark County, faults in 110-111
geology of 109-111
topography of 108-109
underground water of 109-111
analyses of 212-213
wells of 166
Clay, bowlder, character and distribution of 24-25
Claysville, wells at 172
Clear Creek station, water of, analysis of. 214-215
Clintonville, wells at 163
Colville, wells at 172
Corrosion in boilers, cause and correction of 186-191
Cottage Hill, wells at 180
Council Bluffs, Iowa, well water at, treatment of 187
Counties, water in, detailed descriptions of. 90-160
County, water at, assay of 201
Covington, flowing well at 65, 66
water of 82, 84, 175
analysis of 212-213
hardness of 198
Crab Orchard Springs, water of 88, 89, 204-25
waters of, analyses of 204
salts from 205
Cretaceous peneplain, existence of 29
Cynthiana, water of 82, 84, 172-173
water of, analysis of 212-213

D.

Danville, water of 82, 84, 163-164
water of, assay of 201
Dayton, water supply of 84
Devonian rocks 14-15, 23
Distilling, water for 195-197
Dix River, description of 38
rocks on 190
water of, quality of 184
Dodge, wells at 166
Dole, R. B., on sanitary analyses 77
on tracing underground streams 78-79
Donerail, water of, analysis of 212-213
wells at 178
Dover, wells at 175-176
Drainage, underground, description of 30, 34
Drilled wells, cost of 69
description of 69
Drillers, list of 161

Page.
Drilling, mistakes in 11
Dripping Springs, water of 88
Driven wells, description of 69
Drought, occurrence of 56
Dug wells, description of 68-69

E.

Eagle Creek, description of 38
Earth's crust, water in 62-63
Eden shale, character and distribution of .. 16, 20-21, 49-50, passim 91-161
soil from 31, 32
water in ..... 16, 49-51, passim 91-161
quality of 50-51
wells in 161
Elevations, distribution of 28-29
Elizabeth, wells at 163, 167
Eminence, water at 132, 173
Enido, wells at 164
Epsom salts, manufacture of 53, 205
occurrence of, in waters 86
Erosion, progress of 13
Estill Springs, water of 88, 206
water of, analysis of 206

F.

Falmouth, water of 82, 84
water of, analysis of 214-215
Faults, description of 13, 27-28, 110-111, 126, 134-135, 140, 154, 156
Fayette County, geology of 112-114
topography of 111
underground water of 113-115
analyses of 212-213
hardness of 197
wells of 166-169
Fernleaf, wells at 176
Filters, use of 71-72
Filtration, softening and, relative cost of .. 74
Finchtown, water of, analysis of 212-213
Fleming County, geology of 116-118
topography of 116
underground water of 116-118
analyses of 212-213
wells of 169-170
Flemingsburg, water of, analysis of 212-213
wells at 169
Florence, wells at 96
Flowing wells, occurrence of 64-66
Fluorescein, use of, in tracing underground streams 79-81
Foaming, cause of 188-189
Foerste, A. F., on Kentucky waters 8, 90
Forkland, water of, assay of 201
Fort Thomas, water supply of 84
Foster, wells at 165
Fox Springs, water of 88
Frankfort, flowing well at 65, 66
water at 77, 82, 84, 120-121, 170, 180
analyses of 212-213
Franklin County, geology of 119-120
topography of 118-119
underground water of 119-121
analyses of 212-213
wells of 170
Fuller, M. L., on artesian water 63

Digitized by Google

G. Page.

Gallatin County, geology of 122-123
topography of 121
underground water of..... 122-123
analyses of..... 212-213
hardness of..... 198
wells of..... 171
Garrard County, faults in 126
geology of 123-126
topography of 123
underground water of..... 123-126
assays of..... 201
wells of..... 171
Garrard sandstone member, character of... 50, 133, 138, 139
soil from..... 32
water in 50, 139
Geography, description of..... 7-8
Geologic history, outline of..... 11-13
Geology, description of..... 11-30
See also particular counties.
Georgetown, water of 85, 154, 178-179
water of, analysis of..... 214-215
assay of..... 202
hardness of..... 197
Gex, wells at 171
Ghent, wells at..... 166, 171
Glacial deposits, occurrence and character of..... 14, 24-26
Glauber salts, occurrence of, in water..... 86
Grafenburg, wells at..... 170
Grant County, geology of..... 127-128
topography of 126-127
underground water of..... 127-128
Gravel, character and distribution of.... 14, 25-26
water in, movement of 41-42
Gravity, effect of, on underground water... 67
Greendale, wells at..... 167
Green River, water of, quality of..... 184
Gum Lick Spring, water of..... 128

H.

Hagerstown soil series, occurrence and derivation of..... 31
textures of..... 34
Hammond Creek, water of, assay of..... 201
Hankla, wells at..... 164
wells at, water of, assay of..... 201
Hano, wells at..... 173
Hardness, comparative figures on 197-199
Hard waters, prevalence of 86
softening of..... 192-194
cost of 193-194
Harrison County, geology of..... 129-130
topography of 128-129
underground water of..... 129-130
analyses of 212-215
wells of..... 172
Harrodsburg, wells at 177
water of, assay of..... 201-202
Hebron, water of, analysis of..... 212-213
Hedges, wells at..... 166
Henry, A. J., map by 56
Henry County, geology of 131-132
topography of 130
underground water of..... 131-132
wells of..... 173

Page.

Hickman, water near, analysis of..... 212-213
Highbridge limestone, character and distribution of... 17, 18-19, passim 91-160
oil in 95-96
soils from..... 32, 36
water in ..... 17, 46-49, passim 91-160
quality of..... 48-49, 86-87
wells in..... 47-48
Hillsboro, wells at..... 169
History, sketch of 9-10
Hooktown, wells at 173
Hope Mills, wells at, water of, quality of... 190
Hutchison, wells at..... 163
Hyattsville, wells near..... 126-171
Hydrogen sulphide, occurrence of 86

I.

Ice, water for..... 194-195
Ice age, history in..... 13
Illinoisan till, character and distribution of. 14, 25
water in 14
Independence, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
Industry, water for..... 11, 185-197
Investigation, need of..... 10-11
Iodide, value of, in water..... 203
Iowan ice sheet, extent of..... 13
Iowan loess, character and distribution of. 14, 25
water in 14
Iron, effect of, in boiler water..... 188
occurrence of, in water..... 87
Irvine formation, character and distribution of..... 14, 24
water in 14

J.

Jacksonville, wells at 173
Jessamine County, geology of..... 133-135
sink holes in..... 135
topography of 132-133
underground water of..... 133-135
analyses of 214-215
assays of..... 201
wells of. 173-174
Jessamine dome, uplift of..... 12-13, 26-27, 133
Jett, wells near..... 121, 170-171, 180-181
Jetting process, description of..... 69
Joints, occurrence and character of..... 28, 42
water movement in 42
Junction City, wells at..... 102
wells at, water of, assay of..... 201

K.

Keene, water at 135, 173
Kent, William, on scale in boilers..... 186
Kenton County, geology of..... 136-137
topography of 136
underground water of..... 136-138
analyses of..... 214-215
hardness of..... 198
wells of..... 175
Kentucky River, caverns along..... 47
description of..... 37-38
flowing wells on..... 65
water of, hardness of..... 198-199
quality of..... 184
wells on 49

Digitized by Google

Page.
Keo-Me-Zu Springs, water of..... 88, 207
water of, analysis of..... 207
Kiddville Springs, water of..... 88, 111, 205
water of, analysis of..... 212-213
Kirkwood, wells at..... 177

L.

La Grange, wells at..... 178
Lair, wells at..... 173
Lancaster, water of..... 82, 85, 126
water of, assay of..... 201
Latonia, flowing well at..... 65
water supply at..... 84
wells at..... 175
Laundering, water for..... 192-194
Lawrenceburg, water of..... 83, 85, 92, 162
water of, assay of..... 201
Leesburg, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
wells at..... 173
Leighton, M. O., on sanitary analysis..... 77
on testing for salt..... 80
Lexington, rainfall at..... 58-59
water of..... 83, 85, 114-115, 167-169
analyses of..... 212-213
hardness of..... 197
quality of..... 190
Lexington limestone, character and distribution of..... 16, 19, passim 91-160
oil in..... 95-96
soils from..... 32, 36
water in..... 16, 46-49, 74-82, passim 91-161
quality of..... 48-49, 74-82, 86-87
wells in..... 47-48
figure showing..... 47
Lexington peneplain, description of..... 29
origin of..... 13
Licking River, description of..... 38-39
flowing wells on..... 65
Lime, effect of, on water..... 186, 194
Limestone, caverns in..... 29-30, 42-44
solution of..... 42-43
water in..... 42-46
figure showing..... 43
movement of..... 42-45
pollution of..... 76-82
purification of..... 75
Linietta Springs, water of..... 88
Linney, W. M., on Kentucky waters..... 7-8, 89
Literature of Kentucky waters..... 8-9
Lithia water, occurrence of..... 87
Location of area..... 7
Loess, deposition of..... 13, 25

M.

McBrayer, wells at..... 92, 162
Madison County, faults in..... 140
geology of..... 138-140
topography of..... 138
underground water of..... 138-141
analyses of..... 214-215
wells of..... 175
Magnesium, effect of, on boiler water..... 188-189
Marcellus, wells at..... 171
wells at, water of, assay of..... 201
Mason County, geology of..... 141-143

Page.
Mason County, topography of..... 141
underground water of..... 141-143
analyses of..... 214-215
wells of..... 175-176
Matson, G. C., on water resources..... 7-183
work of..... 184
Maysville, water of..... 82, 84, 176
water of, analysis of..... 214-215
Maysville formation, character and distribution of..... 15, 21-22, passim 91-161
soil from..... 32
water in..... 15, 51-52, passim 91-161
quality of..... 52, 88
wells in..... 48, 51-52
Medicinal waters, description of..... 208-210
Melton, water of, hardness of..... 198
Mercer County, geology of..... 143-144
topography of..... 143
underground water of..... 143-144
assays of..... 201-202
wells of..... 177
Midway, wells at..... 181
wells at, water of, assay of..... 202
Miller, A. M., on Kentucky waters..... 8
Millersburg, wells at..... 163
Millville, wells at..... 181
Milton, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
wells at..... 166, 180
Mineral waters, character and distribution of..... 86-90
Mitchellsburg, wells at..... 102, 164
wells at, water of, assay of..... 201
Morgan, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
Mortonsville, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
wells at..... 181
Mount Olivet, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
wells at..... 152, 178
Municipal supplies, notes on..... 82-85
pollution of..... 75-82
sources of..... 73-75
comparative values of..... 74-75
tests of..... 81
Muses Mills, wells at..... 169

N.

Nevada, wells at..... 177
Newcastle, water at..... 132
Newman limestone, character and distribution of..... 14
Newport, flowing well at..... 65
water supply of..... 82, 84, 165
Newtown, wells at..... 154, 179
wells at, water of, assay of..... 202
Nicholas County, geology of..... 145-146
topography of..... 145
underground water of..... 145-146
analyses of..... 214-215
wells of..... 177
Nicholasville, water of..... 83, 85, 135, 169, 173-174
water of, analysis of..... 212-213
assay of..... 201
Noncsuch, water of, analysis of..... 214-215
wells at..... 181
North Middletown, wells at..... 163

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O. Page.

Ohio River, description of 36-37
floods on 37
gravels of, water of 74
water of, hardness of 198
quality of 73
Ohio shale, character and distribution of .. 14, 23, 100, 101, 110, 118, 140
soils from 36
water in 14, 53-54, 101, 110, 124, 140
quality of 54, 86, 88-90
wells in 54
Ohio Valley, plats of, origin of 13
soils of 32
Oil, use of, in tracing underground streams. 79, 81
Oil Springs, water of 88
Oldham County, geology of 147
topography of 146-147
underground water of 147
wells of 178
Olympian Springs, water of 88-89, 205
water of, analysis of 206
Ordovician rocks, mineral waters in 86
occurrence and character of 15-22
Owen, D. D., on Kentucky waters 7, 200
Owen County, geology of 148-149
topography of 148
underground water of 148-149
analyses of 214-215
Owenton, water of, analysis of 214-215

P.

Paint Lick, wells near 126, 175
wells near, water of, analysis of 214-215
water of, quality of 190
Palmer, Chase, on quality of waters 184-215
work of 8, 161, 184
Panola formation, character and distribution of. 15, 22-23, 100-101, 110, 139, 147, 156
soil from 36
water in 15, 52-53, 101, 102, 110, 124, 140, 147
quality of 53
wells in 53, 161
Paris, water of 83, 85, 98-99, 163, 173
water of, analyses of 212-213
Parksville, wells at 164
wells at, water of, assays of 201
Paynes Depot, wells at 179
Pendleton County, geology of 149-150
topography of 149
underground water of 149-150
analyses of 214-215
wells of 178
Peneplain, definition of 13, 29
Perched springs, definition of 40
figure showing 40
Perryville, wells at 101-102, 164
wells at, water of, assay of 201
Peter, A. M., work of 8, 184
Peter, Robert, on Kentucky soils 36
work of 8, 184, 190, 205, 207, 208
Petersburg, wells at 163
wells at, water of, analysis of 212-213
water of, hardness of 198
Pewee Valley, wells at 178
Phosphorus, abundance of 36
Physiography, description of 28-30

Page.

Pinckard, wells at 181
Pine Grove, water of, analysis of 212-213
wells at 166
Piqua, wells at 152, 178
Plants, action of, on underground water ... 67
Point Leavell, wells at 171
Poplar Plains, wells at 169-170
Pumps, types of 71

Q.

Quaternary rock, occurrence and character of 14, 24-26

R.

Rabbit Hash, wells at 168
Rainfall, collection and storage of 71-78
ground water supplied by 39, 56-60
records of 56-59
map showing 57
Reservoirs, construction and use of 72-73
Richmond, water supply of 83, 85, 140-141, 175
Richmond formation, character and distribution of 15, 22, 108, 116, 117, 123, 131, 142, 147, 155, 156, 158
soil from 32
water in 15, 51-52, 108, 124, 131, 147, 156, 158, 161
quality of 52
wells in 51-52
Robertson County, geology of 151-152
topography of 150-151
underground water of 151-152
analyses of 214-215
wells of 178
Rocks, classification of 13-17
Royal Magnesian Spring, water of 88, 211
water of, analysis of 211
Run-off, importance of 59-60

S.

Sadieville, water of, analysis of 214-215
wells at 154, 179
St. Peter sandstone, character and distribution of ..... 17, 18, passim 96-161
water in ..... passim 92-161
head of 65-66
quality of 66, 86-87
Saline waters, occurrence of 86, 87
Salt River, water of, quality of 184
Salt-sulphur waters, occurrence of 87
See also St. Peter sandstone.
Salvisa, wells at 177
Sand, water in, movement of 41-42
Sanders, water of, analysis of 212-213
wells at 166, 171
Sandstone, water in, movement of 41-42
Sanitary surveys, advantages of 77-78
Sardis, water of, analysis of 214-215
Scale, deposit of, in boilers 186-191
Schweitzer, P., on sulphur waters 203-204
Scott County, faults in 154
geology of 153-154
topography of 152-153
underground water of 153-154
analyses of 214-215
assays of 202
hardness of 197

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Page.
Scott County, wells of 178-179
Scovel, M. A., aid of 184
Seeps, cause of 67-68
Shale, water in 45-46
Shelby City, water at 102
water at, assay of 201
Shelby County, faults in 156
geology of 155-156
topography of 155
underground water of 155-157
analyses of 214-215
wells of 179
Shelbyville, water of 83, 85, 157, 179
water of, analysis of 214-215
Silurian rocks, mineral water in 86-88
occurrence and character of 22-23
Simpsonville, wells at 179
Sink holes, character and distribution of . 30, 135
pollution through 81-82
Sinking Creek, character of 135
Slichter, C. S., on underground - water movement 41
Soap making, water for 191-192
Soda ash, use of, in boiler waters 187
Sodium, effect of, on boiler water 188
Soils, absorption by 60-62
character and distribution of .. passim 91-162
chemical composition of 34-36
classification of 30-31
distribution of 31-33
drainage of 34
fertility of 34-35
relation of, to underground water 60-62
sources of 31-33
texture of 33-34
South Ripley, wells at 176
Springs, cause of 40, 46, 68
history of 9-10
Springs, mineral, data on 86-90
production of 90
Spring Station, spring at 160
wells at 181-182
Stachelberg Spring, Switzerland, water of. 208-209
water of, analysis of 210
Stamping Ground, water of, analysis of .. 214-215
water of, assay of 202
hardness of 197
wells at 154, 178
Steam making, water for 185-191
Stock, water for 11
Strata, deposition of 11-13
sequence of 14-17
Streams, underground, nature of 74
origin and progress of 43-44, 76
figure showing 43
pollution of 74, 76-78
tracing of 78-80
Structure, geologic, description of 26-28
Sulphates, effect of, on boilers 189
Sulphur water, curative properties of 203-204
Sunset, wells at 170
Surface waters, description of 36-39
See also particular counties, topography of.

T. Page.
Table waters, character and distribution of 210-211
Taylorsport, wells at 96, 163
Terraces, character and distribution of 26
Tertiary rocks, occurrence and character of 14, 24
Thunderstorms, occurrence of 60
Tilton, wells at 170
Topography, description of 28
relation of, to underground water 60
Trimble County, geology of 157-158
topography of 157
underground water of 158-159
analyses of 214-215
hardness of 198
wells of 180
Tuckahoe, wells at 176
Tyrone, water of, analysis of 212-213
water of, assay of 201
hardness of 197
wells at 92, 162

U.

Underground waters. *See* Waters, underground.
Union Mills, spring at 135
Uplift, occurrence of 12-13

V.

Veatch, A. C., on perched springs 40
Versailles, water of, analysis of 214-215
water of, assay of 202
hardness of 197
wells at 160, 182-183

W.

Wallacetown, water at 141
Walnut Hall, wells at 169
Walton, wells at 96
Warsaw, water of, analysis of 212-213
water of, hardness of 198
quality of 190
wells at 171
Water, industrial uses of 185-197
quality of, importance of 185
Water, artesian, conditions essential to 63-64
Waters, medicinal, description of 203-210
Waters, mineral, character of 86-90
production of 90
source of 45, 48, 86
Waters, surface, advantages of 74-75
description of 36-39
domestic use of 73, 74
Waters, table, analyses of 211
character and distribution of 210 211
Waters, underground, analyses of 212-215
classification of 200
domestic uses of 73-85
hardness of 197-199
mineralization of 45, 48, 190
See also Waters, mineral.
movement of 41-46

Digitized by Google

Page.
Waters, underground, occurrence of, by counties 90–160
occurrence of, conditions of 39–55
pollution of 75–82
quality of 184–215
See also particular formations.
recovery of 66–71
raising of 70–71
See also Wells.
relation of, to rainfall 56–60
to soils 60–62
to topography 60
sanitary survey of 78
search for, errors in 11
source of 39
streams of, history of 43–44
study of 7–8
Water table, position and character of 39–41
Waverly shale, character and distribution of 14, 23–24, 100, 101, 116, 118, 124, 138, 140
soil from 32
water in 14, 54, 101, 124, 140
Wells, casings of 70
cost of 70
data on 160–183
Wells, recovery of water by 68–69
artesian, occurrence of 64–66
See also Water, artesian.
Wells, M. E., on boiler water 187
Wellsburg, wells at 165
Whipple, G. C., on hardness 193–194
Williamstown, water at 128
Wilmore, water at 135, 174
Winchester, water of ..... 83, 85, 111, , 166
water of, analysis of 212–213
Winchester limestone, character and distribution of ..... 16, 19–20, passim 91–161
soil from 32
water in ..... 16, 49, passim 91–160
Wisconsin gravels, character and distribution of 14, 25–26
water in 14
Wisconsin ice sheet, extent of 13
Woodford County, geology of 159–160
topography of 159
underground water of 159–160
analyses of 214–215
assays of 202
hardness of 197
wells of 180–183
Wyandott, wells at 166

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
GEORGE OTIS SMITH, DIRECTOR

WATER-SUPPLY PAPER 234

PAPERS ON THE CONSERVATION OF WATER RESOURCES

REPRINTED FROM REPORT OF THE NATIONAL CONSERVATION COMMISSION, FEBRUARY, 1909

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	5
Distribution of rainfall, by Henry Gannett	7
Floods, by M. O. Leighton	10
Developed water powers, compiled under the direction of W. M. Steuart, with discussion by M. O. Leighton	28
Undeveloped water powers, by M. O. Leighton	46
Irrigation, by F. H. Newell	59
Underground waters, by W. C. Mendenhall	68
Denudation, by R. B. Dole and H. Stabler	78
Control of catchment areas, by H. N. Parker	94
Index	95

ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page.
PLATE I. Map of the United States, showing mean annual precipitation	7
II. Percentages of annual precipitation received in the six warmer months	8

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PAPERS ON THE CONSERVATION OF WATER RESOURCES.

INTRODUCTION.

This volume is a reprint of selected papers on the conservation of water resources, written by members of the United States Geological Survey in response to executive order, for the report of the National Conservation Commission (S. Doc. 676, 60th Cong., 2d sess.). Nearly all the information from which the papers are compiled had previously been collected by the Survey in the performance of its regular duties. The remainder has been taken from the records of other federal bureaus. The papers, therefore, constitute a summation of certain official work which has been in progress for more than twenty years and whose results eventually must have been published in the regular series of water-supply papers had they not been diverted to become a part of the larger work on conservation. The printing of the conservation report has furnished an opportunity to present these reprints in convenient form and, as the demand for the larger report will greatly exceed the edition authorized, this segregation of the papers relating to water will prove useful.

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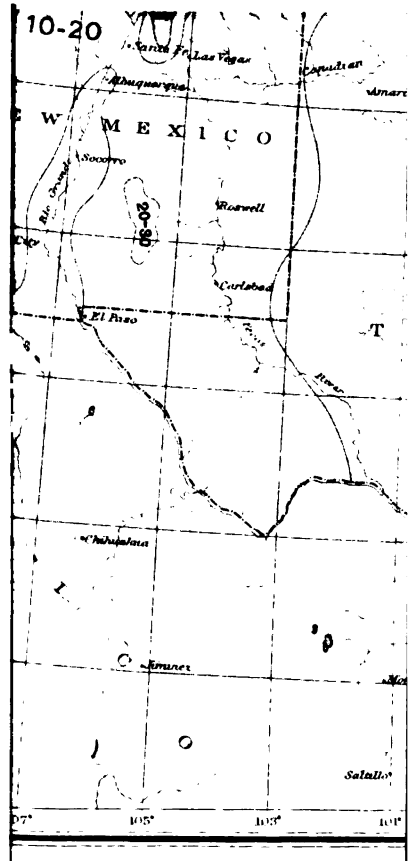

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DISTRIBUTION OF RAINFALL.

By Henry Gannett.

.e ultimate source of our water supply is rainfall, the chief ;e of which is evaporation from the Pacific Ocean, while sec- ry sources are the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean. ,ght from the Pacific by the westerly winds of the north tem- ;e zone, the moisture in the air is carried eastwardly nearly across ;ontinent in diminishing quantities, varying at different times ;e year. The supply in the atmosphere is reenforced in the ssippi Valley from the Gulf of Mexico, whence it is drawn d by southerly and southwesterly winds; and again east of the alachian Mountains it is reenforced from the Atlantic Ocean, which it is drawn by easterly winds accompanying cyclonic rbances.

;e areal distribution of the rainfall is in general terms as fol- : The precipitation is very heavy upon the north Pacific coast, e at several points in the States of Washington and Oregon it eds 100 inches annually, but diminishes southward so that at Diego, Cal., the rainfall is very light and desert conditions ail. Inland, back of the Coast Ranges, the northern part of great depression separating these mountains from the Cascades the Sierra Nevada is well watered. The amount of rainfall inishes southward, so that in the southern part of the depres- , which is occupied by the San Joaquin Valley, precipitation canty and arid conditions exist. The high mountains of the cade Range and of the Sierra Nevada are copiously watered, but of them, in the valleys and low plateaus and on the great plains ar east as the one hundredth meridian, the rainfall is very light. mountains of this (the Rocky Mountain) region, however, enjoy ore copious rainfall than the valleys, the amount differing with altitude and latitude, the more northerly and higher ranges eiving the greater amount.

Continuing eastward, the small supply of moisture still remain- from that brought from the Pacific Ocean is augmented by a nerous contribution from the Gulf of Mexico, and the rainfall creases. Upon much of the Gulf coast it exceeds 60 inches an- ally, but it diminishes northward, until in the neighborhood of the

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Great Lakes the precipitation does not exceed 30 inches yearly. The Appalachian Mountains are abundantly watered, and the Atlantic plain receives everywhere a sufficiency for agricultural purposes, derived largely from the Atlantic Ocean.

The causes of these great differences in amounts of precipitation in the various parts of the country are simply explained. All air holds a certain amount of moisture, ranging from the amount sufficient to saturate it to a very small proportion of that quantity. The point of saturation is much higher in warm air than in cold air; i. e., warm air can hold a much larger quantity of moisture than can cold air. Whenever air is cooled below the point of saturation, rain falls and it can only fall when thus chilled. There are several ways in which air currents may be cooled; the current may be forced upward, as when it climbs the slope of a mountain range; it may be cooled by intermingling with colder air currents; and again, by coming in contact with a cold land.

The sea receives heat slowly and parts with it slowly; the land, on the contrary, is rapidly heated and parts with its heat as quickly. It results from these conditions that the ocean has a fairly uniform temperature the year around, while the land is much colder in winter than in summer.

Now, let us apply these principles to the United States. The prevailing winds in the Temperate Zone are from the west. These winds come off the Pacific laden with moisture and having the temperature of the ocean. If they encounter land having a lower temperature they are chilled below the point of saturation and some of the moisture is deposited in the form of rain or snow. If, on the other hand, the land is warmer than the air, the currents pass over it without any reduction in temperature and with little or no loss of moisture.

During the winter the north Pacific coast is colder than the sea, and hence the copious precipitation which it enjoys at that season of the year. In the summer the conditions are reversed, and the air currents, although containing at least as much moisture as in cold weather, pass over the land with comparatively little loss from precipitation. Southward, down the coast, the land is progressively warmer in winter, and consequently receives less rain, while in southern California there is little rain even in winter, except upon the mountains. Although the atmosphere at Los Angeles contains more moisture than does that at Washington, D. C., rain seldom falls in the former locality, as there is nothing to cool the air currents.

Thus it is that the Pacific coast has well-defined wet and dry seasons corresponding to winter and summer in other parts of the country. In winter the country drains the air currents of their moisture and they pass eastward as dry winds, while in summer these currents carry most of their moisture over the mountains and precipitate it upon the Rocky Mountains farther to the east and upon

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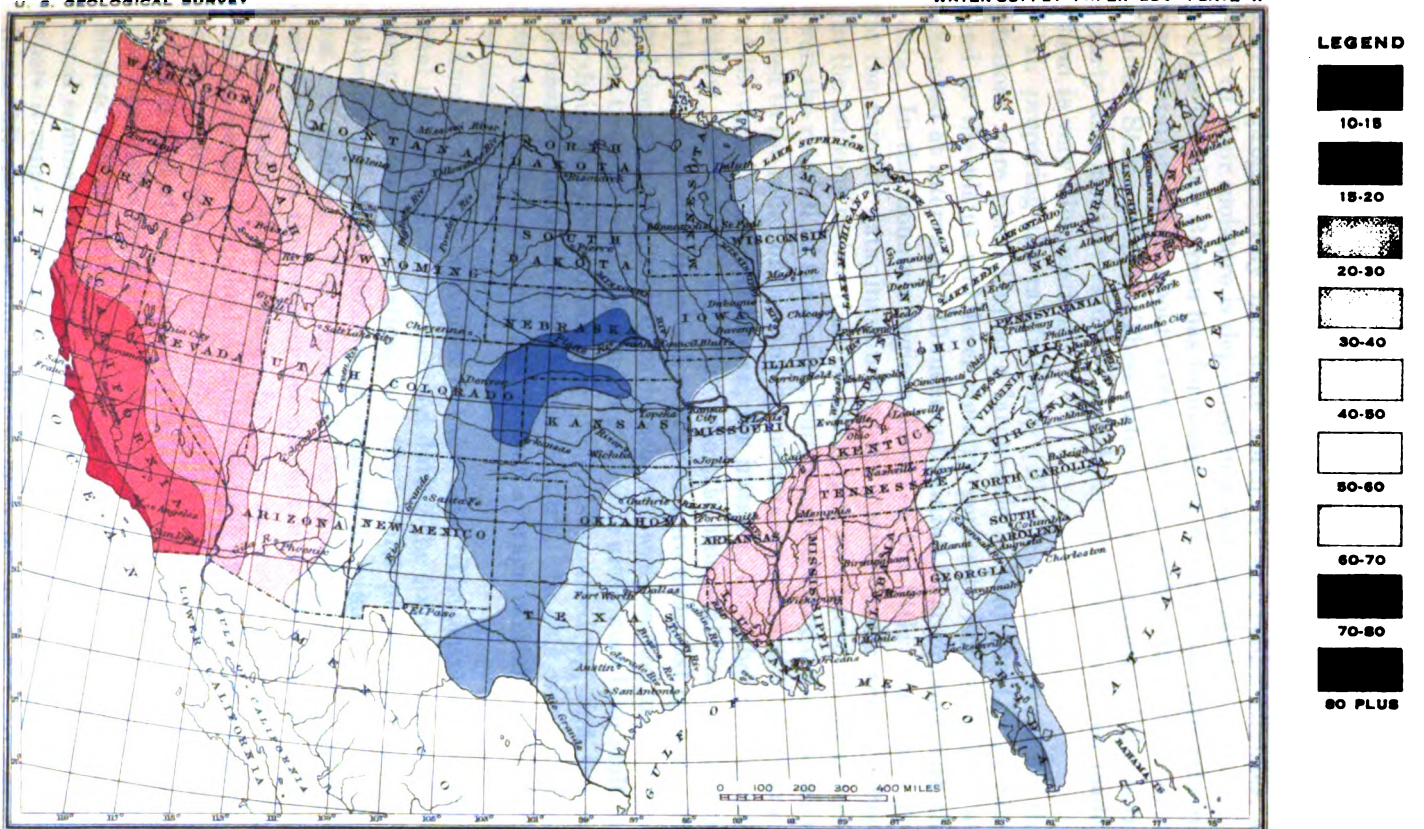
LEGEND
10-15
15-20
20-30
30-40
40-50
50-60
60-70
70-80
80 PLUS
0 100 200 300 400 MILES
CANADA
MONTANA
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
WYOMING
NEBRASKA
IOWA
WISCONSIN
MINNESOTA
MICHIGAN
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
NEW JERSEY
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
LOUISIANA
ARKANSAS
MISSOURI
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
TEXAS
NEW MEXICO
ARIZONA
COLORADO
UTAH
NEVADA
CALIFORNIA
OREGON
WASHINGTON
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE MEAD
LAKE TAHOE
LAKE OF THE WOODS
LAKE MANITOBA
LAKE WINNIPEGOSIS
LAKE WINNIPEG
LAKE ST. CLAIR
LAKE MINNETONKA
LAKE OKEECHOBEE
LAKE MAXINKUCKEE
LAKE WINNEBAGO
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE SUPERIOR
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Chicago
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Davenport
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Omaha
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Cheyenne
Denver
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Reno
Carson City
San Francisco
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the great plains. Hence, it is that in these two regions the greater part of the year's rainfall occurs in the warmer half of the year.

Going eastward into the Mississippi Valley the moist air currents, drawn northward from the Gulf of Mexico by southerly winds, are carried progressively into more northerly and colder climates, and part of their moisture is deposited in a similar manner.

The Weather Bureau has furnished the Commission with data upon precipitation from about 4,000 stations within the limits of the United States proper. These data consist of records of the normal yearly and monthly rainfall, and the study which has been made of them is very illuminating.

In preparing the rainfall map (Pl. I), the data from all these stations were platted upon a large-scale map of the United States, and in the plains and level country generally isohyetal lines were sketched at intervals of 10 inches of rainfall in accordance with these data. In the mountain regions, however, but little weight was given to the rainfall data, inasmuch as the stations are generally situated in the canyons rather than on the ridges, and hence do not represent well the rainfall of the region, but in such country consideration was given to the relief of the land, its mountains, etc., and to the character of its vegetation; it is known, for instance, that the lower limit of yellow pine timber is not far from the isohyetal line of 20 inches. The areas between these isohyetal lines were measured by planimeter, and the average rainfall of each such area was assumed to be the mean of the two isohyetal lines limiting it. The areas were then multiplied by their average rainfall, the products summed up, and the total divided by the total area of the country. In this way the figure, 29.4 inches, was obtained as the mean average rainfall of the United States.

Another use has been made of these data. The percentage of the annual rainfall which was received during the six warmer months was computed for each station, and the results platted (Pl. II), thus showing the preponderance of summer or winter rainfall throughout the country. Over most of the area the greater part of the rain occurs in the warmer season, but upon the Pacific coast and in the Rocky Mountains as far east as western Montana, eastern Idaho, eastern Utah, and Arizona the bulk of the precipitation comes in the colder season. The highest proportion, three-fourths to four-fifths of that of the year, is on or near the Pacific coast, and the proportion diminishes eastward. Again, in an area adjacent to the Gulf of Mexico, winter rainfall preponderates slightly. The highest proportional summer rainfall is on the plains east of the Rocky Mountains, where it ranges from three-fourths to four-fifths of that of the year. In the Mississippi Valley and on the Atlantic plain the proportion which falls in the warmer season is but little more than half of the annual precipitation.

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FLOODS.

By M. O. Leighton.

INCREASE.

A broad and comprehensive review of river-discharge records in the United States indicates unmistakably that floods are increasing. It is true that the opposite tendency may be shown on some rivers, while the records on others may indicate little or no change; but, taken as a whole, the rivers that reveal more intense flood tendencies so thoroughly dominate the situation that the conclusion above expressed must be inevitable.

It will be well to consider at the outset just what index may be used to determine the trend of flood tendencies. It is common in inquiries of this character to select and compare the highest stages attained in the several years of record, and because, perchance, higher floods may be shown in early years, many really competent persons have believed themselves forced to the conclusion that there is no increase in flood tendency. The actual height attained by the maximum flood each year is, however, a matter of small consequence in such considerations. A little reflection will show how this must be true. The precipitation, which is the ultimate cause of floods, takes three courses, only two of which are really important in the present discussion, namely, the course along the surface of the ground directly into watercourses, and that into the ground by percolation, with subsequent discharge into the rivers by seepage. In general terms it may be stated that the water which causes floods is that proportion of the precipitation which the earth does not absorb and which, therefore, must flow along the earth's surface. Now it is apparent that when precipitation becomes so intense and long continued that it practically saturates the ground the rain that falls thereafter must take the direct route and floods must necessarily arise. Therefore the height of great floods is fixed primarily by the intensity of precipitation and, as the amount of rain varies from year to year, now bountiful and again scanty in what seem to be fairly uniform cycles of years, the observation of an especially high flood during an early year compared with that of a much lower one during a recent year can give no index to flood tendency in any river. The real index is of more fundamental origin than the mere occurrence of high floods.

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When the question "Are floods increasing?" is asked, the considerations involved are not those of height but those of duration and frequency. In other words, the question means, Are floods of more frequent occurrence and are there more days of flood than formerly?

Reverting for the moment to the discussion in the foregoing paragraphs, it is plain that floods will occur more frequently in response to a given rate of precipitation, if there are in the drainage area influences that either inhibit or prevent the ready absorption of the rain by the ground, than they would if absorption were ideal. Such ideal condition assures complete absorption of all precipitation. A rain of a given depth in a unit's time—say 2 inches in one day—would surely produce a flood in a drainage area which was nonabsorbent. On the other hand, the same amount of rain would not change the river stage if the conditions enhancing absorption on the drainage area were ideal. Between these two extremes there are wide and varying conditions which tend to increase or to diminish the resultant floods from a given rainfall. In other words, the question "Are floods increasing?" means, essentially, Are the conditions of the surface of the ground in the river basins so changing that they render the ground less absorbent? If this be the case, it is clear that a much larger proportion of the precipitation would run directly off into the rivers than that which was so conducted at an earlier period.

There are five classes of agencies or conditions affecting the flow of streams. The first is climate, under which are comprised rainfall, evaporation, temperature, wind, and humidity. Although these are exceedingly variable from day to day and from season to season, the observations that have been recorded indicate that a period of years embraces all conditions, so that the mean of them may be considered fairly constant. There is very little evidence, except in special areas, that reveals any progressive and permanent change in climatic conditions. The second agency is topography, and the third geology, both of which may, for present purposes, be considered absolutely stable. The fourth is surface vegetation, which includes forest cover and cultivated land. This is subject to progressive change, according to the demands, conveniences, and usages of society. The fifth consists of artificial agencies, such as storage, reservoirs, and drainage, which produce rapid and marked effects on river discharge.

Therefore, the consideration of river discharge and especially of floods involves the appraisal of the effects of climate, vegetation, and artificial agencies. The other two agencies, being constant, may be left out of consideration. It is necessary to take account of these conditions in connection with all studies of progressive flood trend. This emphasizes the futility of many studies that have heretofore been made, in which not only have the extreme flood heights

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been the basis of determination, but there has been a total lack of consideration of climatic conditions, especially that of rainfall. A river, for example, may show a progressive decrease in flood frequency during a period of years. If that were taken alone it would indicate a decreasing flood trend; whereas, if the rainfall be compared progressively in the same manner, it might readily be shown that the flood trend was increasing rather than diminishing, because the precipitation was decreasing faster than the flood frequency.

The above considerations have been kept in mind in the study of flood frequency here presented. The accompanying diagrams (pp. 13 to 20) are the result of appropriate studies made of flood occurrence on rivers on which gages have been maintained for a long period, the longest, in fact, of which there are available and useful records in this country. Examination shows conclusively the increasing trend of flood occurrence and the cause thereof comes now properly into question.

As already stated, the rainfall, which is by far the most important of the climatic conditions, has been accounted for in these diagrams, and we have, therefore, remaining only the condition of the ground surfaces in the drainage areas and artificial agencies. For each of these rivers artificial agencies may be eliminated. Our general knowledge of conditions on the drainage areas gives assurance that there has been no reservoir installation of extent sufficient to modify in the slightest degree the normal conditions of flood discharge. This is also true with respect to artificial drainage.

Therefore we come down to the condition of the land surface, or, as above expressed, conditions of vegetation. We are aware that on all of these drainage areas there has been progressive cutting of timber and building of roads. The latter improvements, however, have not been of sufficient extent to modify in any appreciable degree the discharge. A computation of the actual road areas, including the paved streets, etc., will show conclusively that, in comparison with the total area under consideration, they are insignificant. The conditions of cultivated fields undoubtedly have a marked influence in modifying the rate of river discharge, and it is certain that some of the effects in these areas are due to this cause. The cultivation of fields has, however, improved markedly in recent years. The farmer has learned to a considerable degree that it is more profitable for him to cultivate his inclined fields by contour or terrace cultivation, and a cursory view of the areas represented in the accompanying diagrams will show that to a very large extent improved methods of cultivation have been put into effect.

Altogether, when the physical conditions on the drainage areas are summed up, the one great change that has been produced in the vegetative conditions is the reduction of forest area. On some of these

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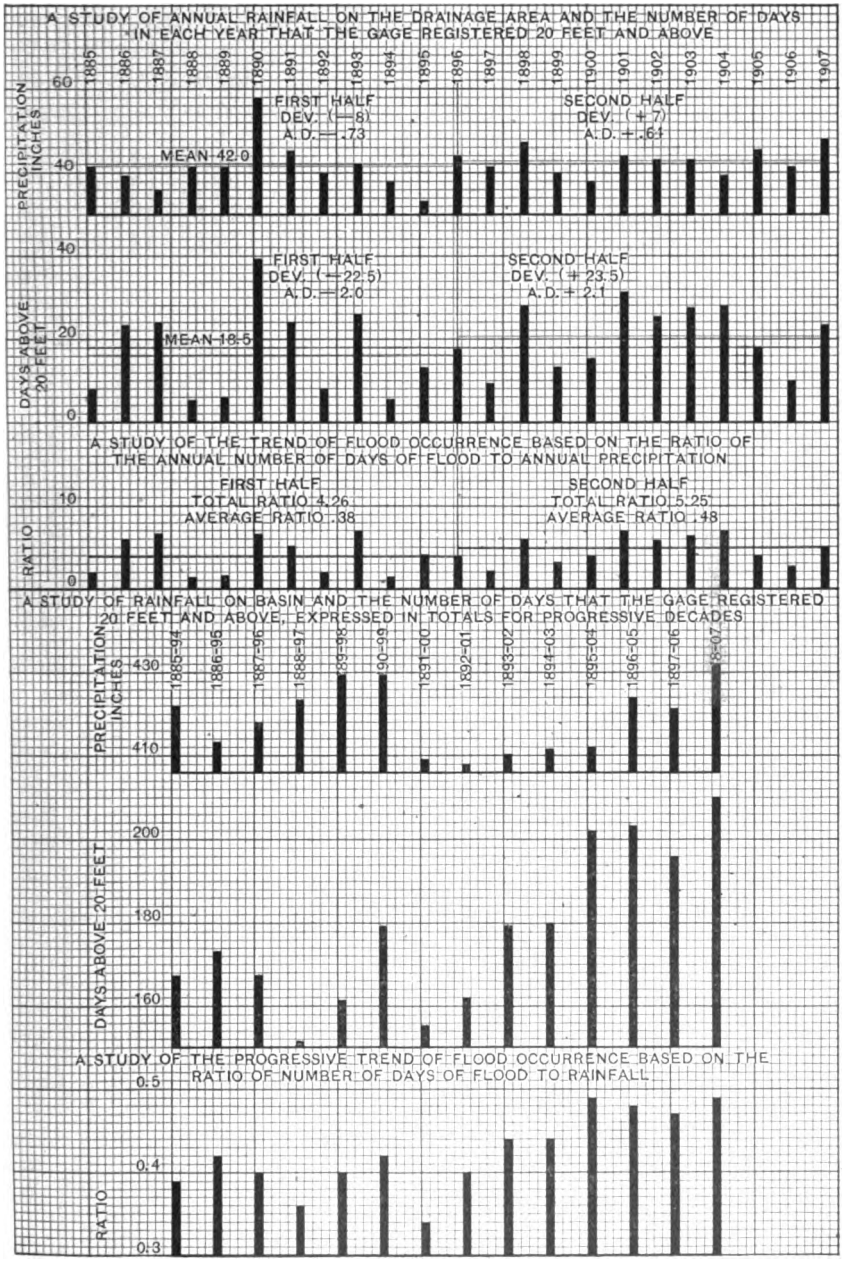
FLOODS ON OHIO RIVER AT WHEELING, W. VA. 1885-1907



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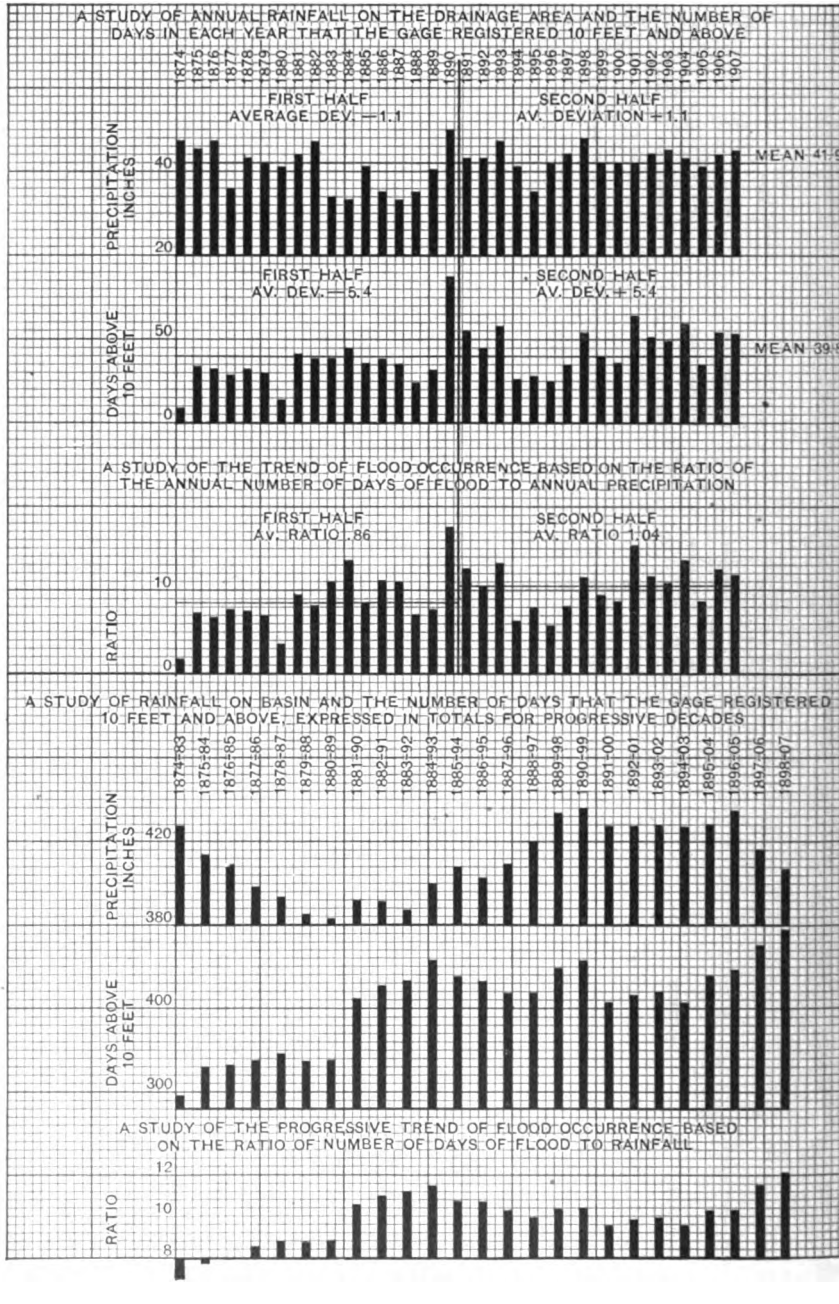
FLOODS ON ALLEGHENY RIVER AT FREEPORT, PA. 1874-1907.



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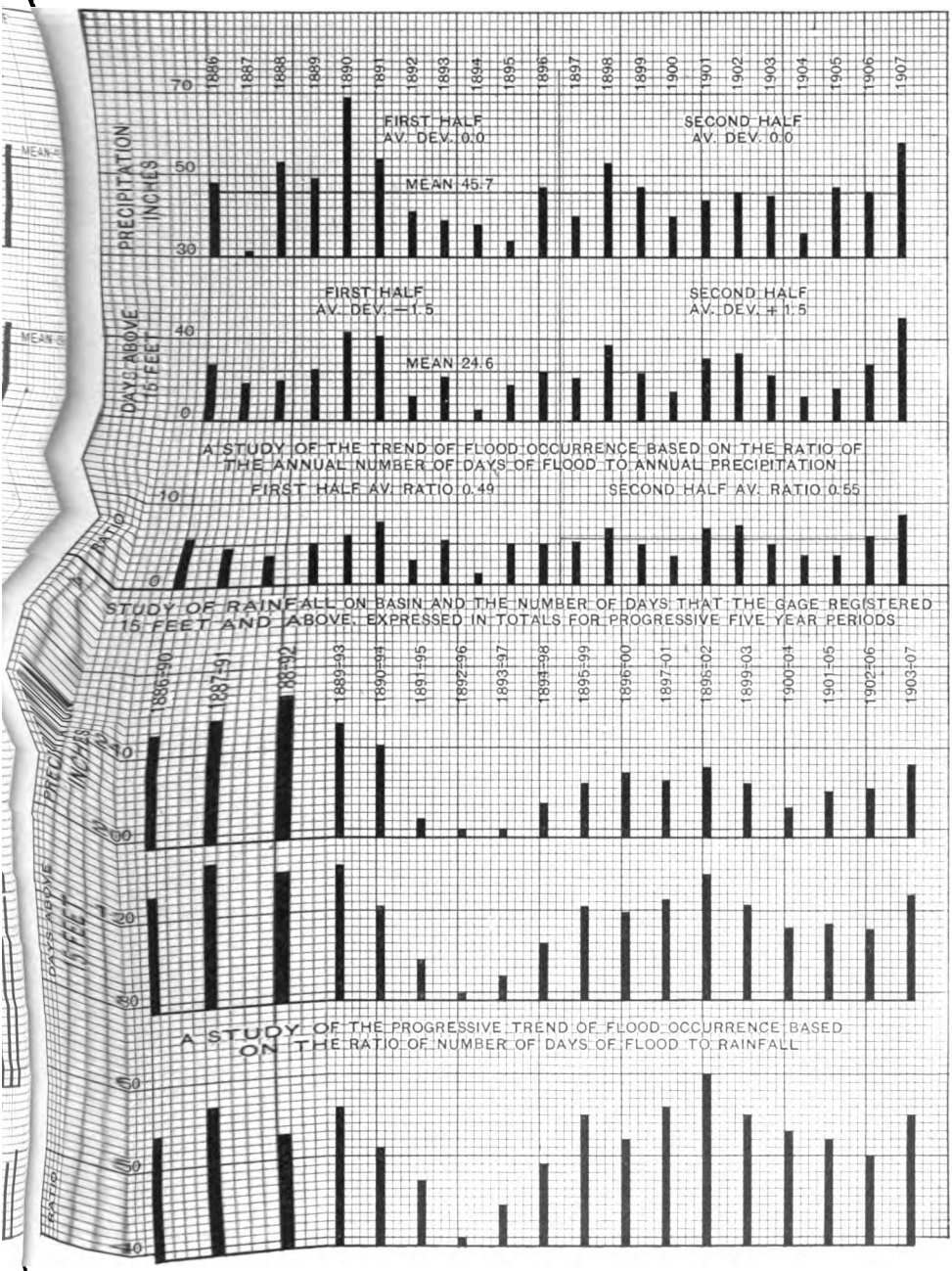
FLOODS ON MONONGAHELA RIVER AT LOCK NO. 4, PA. 1886-1907.



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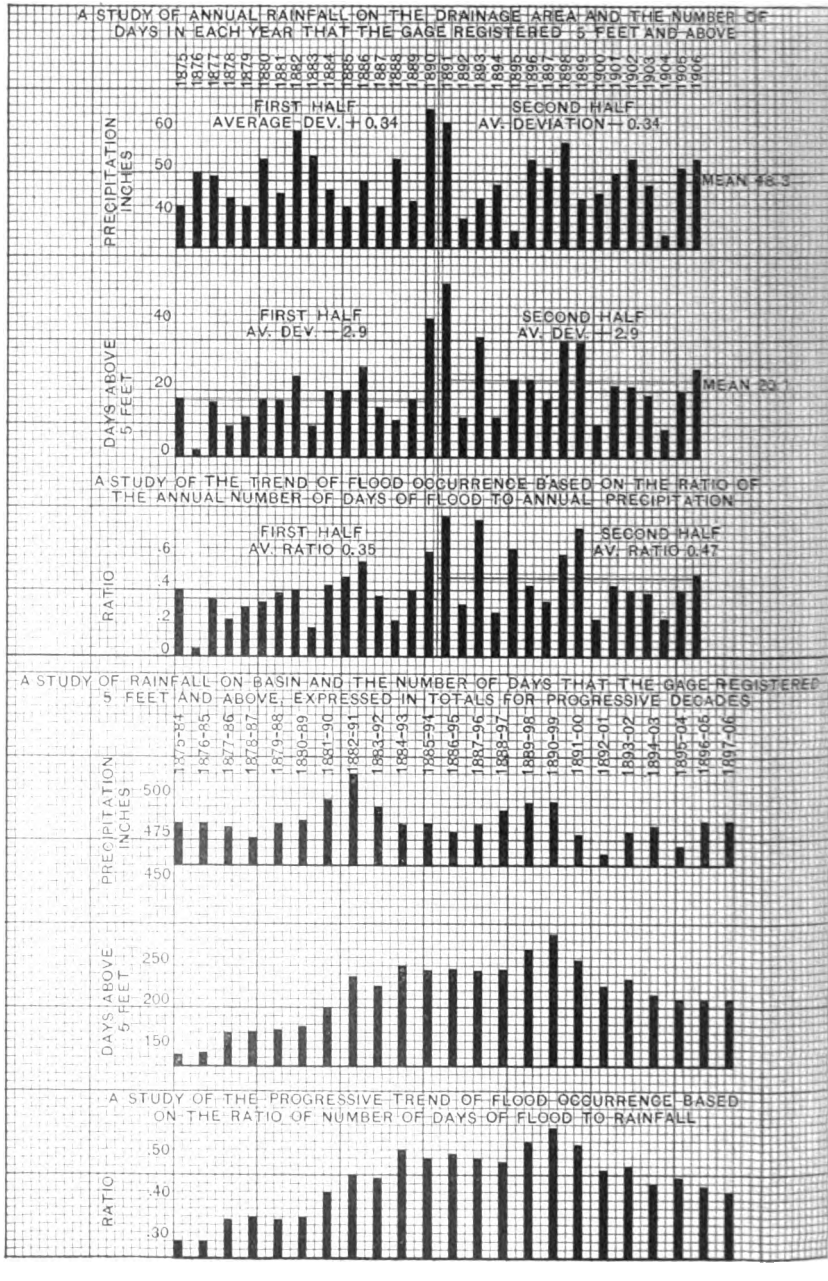
FLOODS ON YOUGHIOGHENY RIVER AT CONFLUENCE, PA. 1875–1906.



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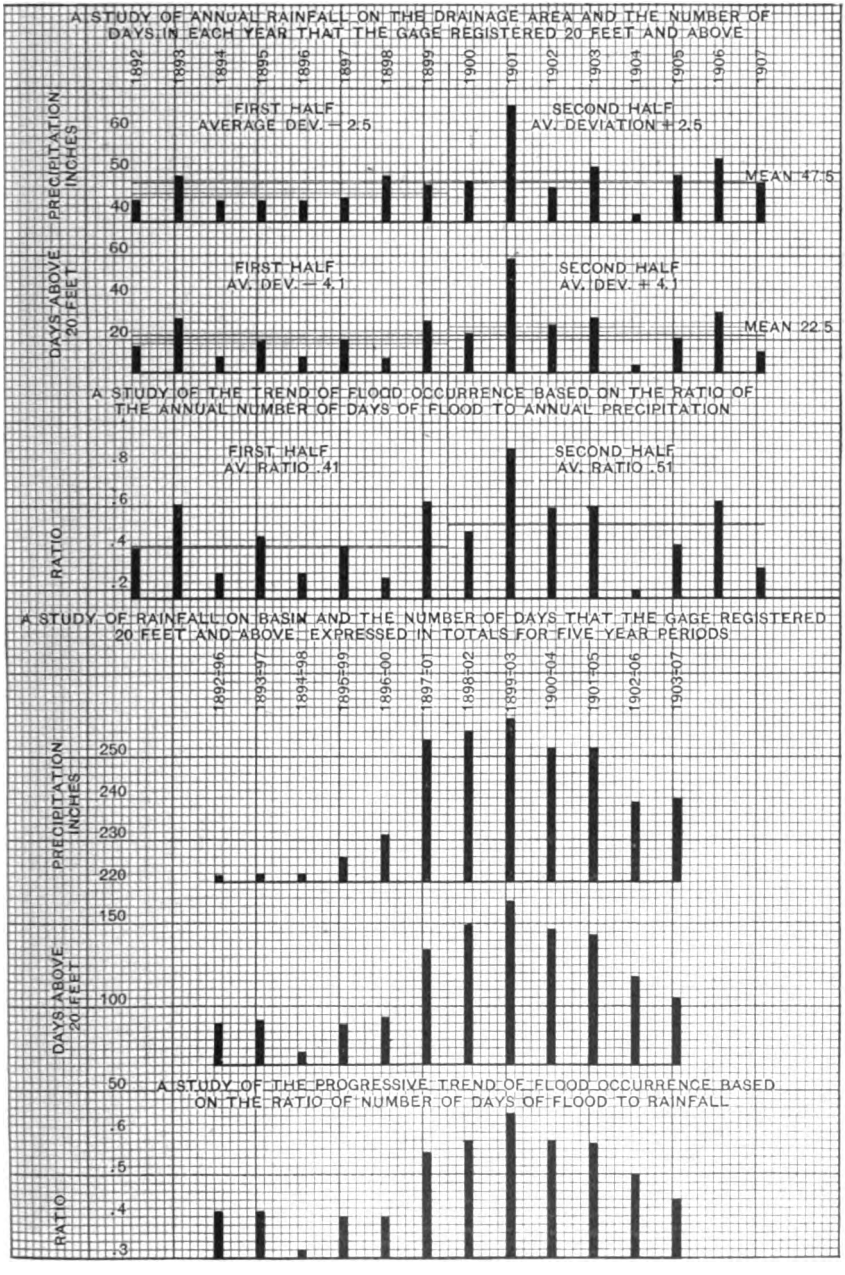
FLOODS ON WATEREE RIVER AT CAMDEN, S. C. 1892-1907.



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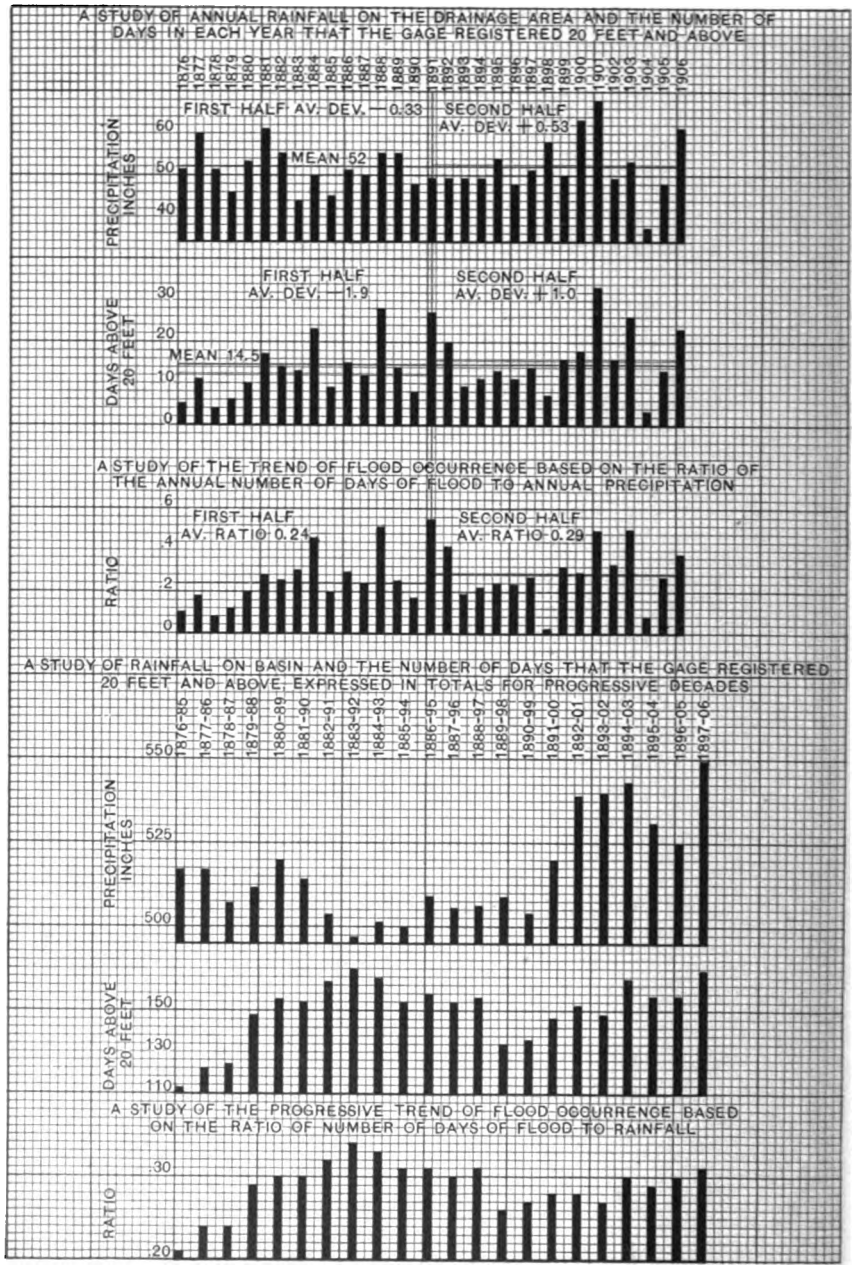
FLOODS ON SAVANNAH RIVER AT AUGUSTA, GA. 1876–1906.



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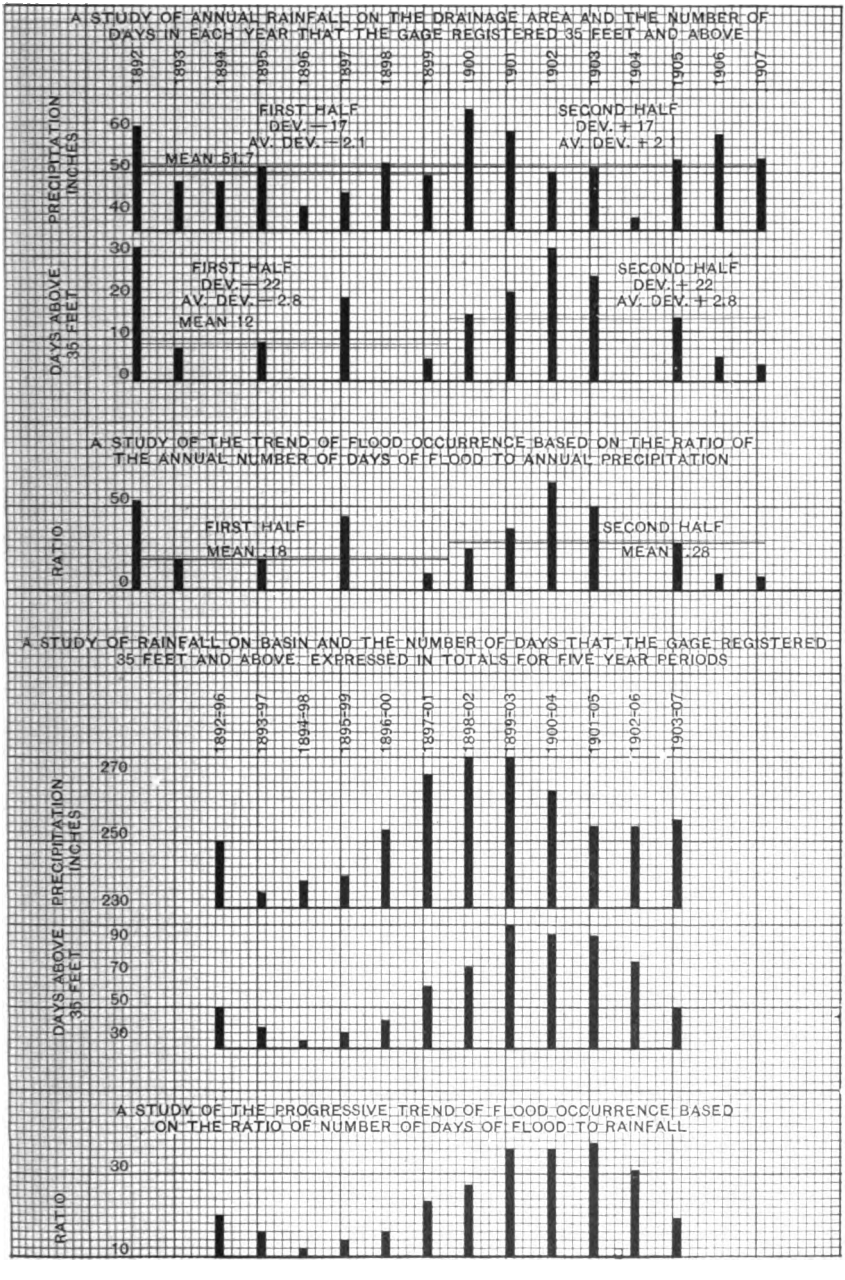
FLOODS ON ALABAMA RIVER AT SELMA, ALA. 1892-1907.



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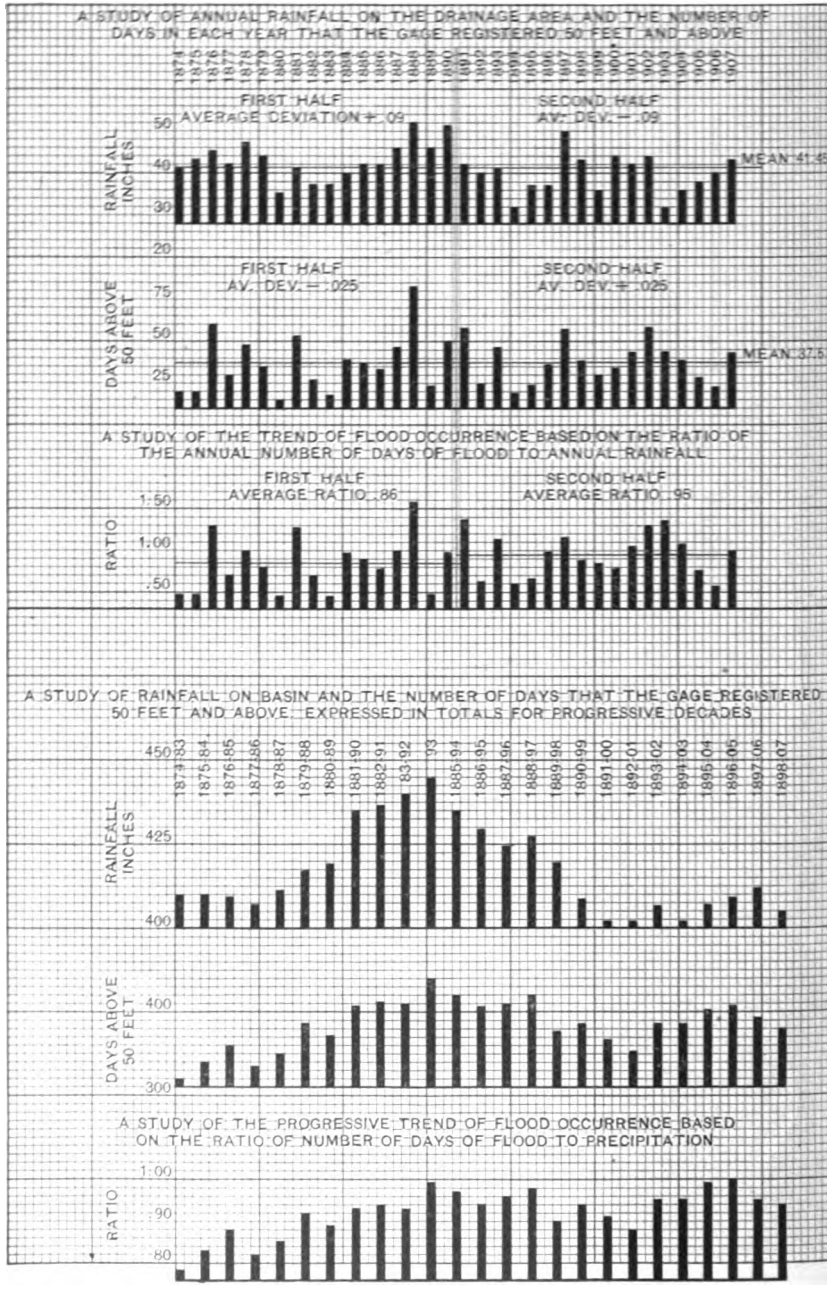
FLOODS ON CONNECTICUT RIVER AT HOLYOKE, MASS. 1874-1907.



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drainage areas it has occurred by slow progression and on others more rapidly. It is certain that in some areas this forest cutting has caused barren conditions, because the land was of such a character that, after it was relieved of forest protection, it eroded easily and its productive portions were quickly swept into watercourses.

Summarily, therefore, it may be stated with confidence that the increase in flood tendency shown so unmistakably is due in by far the largest measure to the denudation of forest areas.

Diagrams on pages 13 to 16 are expressions of progressive changes in flood occurrence during the series of years indicated thereon. They are all drafted on a uniform basis, the first expression in each case being a record of the annual precipitation in inches; the second gives the number of days in each year that the gage at the point designated registered above a certain stage; the third is a combination of the first two and gives the relation of the number of days of flood to the precipitation. Thus, there is given in one expression the actual trend of flood occurrence in terms of precipitation. This form of expression eliminates one variable in the conditions governing flood occurrence, and the only remaining ones to be considered are vegetation and artificial agencies, as discussed in previous paragraphs.

The second series of diagrams on each sheet gives the same relations except that the amounts are united into progressive decades, or in one case into progressive five-year periods. This form of expression serves to neutralize the variability that occurs in the successive years and gives to the whole diagram a progressive trend which is more comprehensive and more easily interpreted than the statement of actual amounts. Thus, in the diagram on page 13, the first progressive period covers the interval from 1885 to 1894, the second that from 1886 to 1895, and so on, each period representing ten years, and the total amount of rainfall and the total number of days of flood for each decade are expressed, rather than the average amount of these quantities.

In interpreting diagrams of this kind it should be emphasized that the amounts actually shown are not significant, save as they indicate the relative trend of the successive decades. In other words, the diagrams indicate direction, and should be so interpreted.

The data given on the above-mentioned sheets relate to the upper Ohio drainage area, and they show the relation of flood occurrence on the three principal tributaries thereof—the Allegheny, Youghiogheny, and Monongahela rivers—to flood occurrence on the Ohio at Wheeling. It will be seen that in each case there has been a marked increase in the number of days of floods, and the four diagrams can be consistently compared. At Wheeling during the period 1885 to 1907, inclusive, the ratio of flood occurrence to annual precipitation

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increased from 0.38 in the first half of the period to 0.48 in the second half, and this relation is shown more distinctly in the similar expression with the amounts given in totals for progressive decades. The gage records on the Allegheny at Freeport, Pa., show an increase in this ratio from 0.86 in the first half to 1.04 in the second half of the period 1874 to 1907, inclusive. The Monongahela record shows an increase of ratio during the period 1886 to 1907, inclusive, from 0.45 in the first half to 0.55 in the second half, while a still greater divergence is noted on the Youghiogheny, the ratio for the period 1873 to 1906, inclusive, increasing from 0.35 in the first half to 0.47 in the second half.

Altogether, these diagrams are extremely significant in showing the progressive increase in flood occurrence on a drainage area the deforestation of which has been constant and rapid for the past thirty years. It began first on the Allegheny and the results are apparent in the diagrams. Subsequently, timber cutting began on the Monongahela and Youghiogheny areas and is occurring at the present time.

Similar results are shown on pages 17 to 19, which give the same data for Wateree River above Camden, S. C., the Savannah above Augusta, Ga., and the Alabama above Selma, Ala.

Page 20 illustrates a record of flood duration on Connecticut River at Holyoke, Mass. This river basin has been subject to continuous deforestation for a long period. Recent testimony shows that for the last twenty years from 50,000,000 to 80,000,000 feet B. M. of timber have been released over the dam at Turners Falls annually. Records of private logging are not available, but it is known that the deforestation of the drainage area commenced some time previous to this period.

There is one point of objection that may reasonably be taken to the diagrams above discussed. It is that they draw comparison between annual precipitation and the number of days of flood. A better comparison would be one between the number and depth of flood-producing rains and the number of flood days. Such a comparison has been made on the Tennessee basin above Chattanooga. No other basins are here dealt with in this way because of the enormous amount of labor involved.

In addition to proving beyond controversy the increase in floods due to deforestation, the record is of interest because it shows how futile and misleading is the attempt to derive conclusions from flood records without taking into account records of precipitation. Inspection of the Chattanooga flood record shows a decided decrease in the number and duration of floods during the period of record. If this were taken alone, it would controvert the forest-control idea. A comparison of the precipitation records on the drainage area.

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however, assures us that the rainfall has decreased, even to a greater relative extent than the floods. The final result is that the flood tendencies have increased.

The results for the Tennessee basin cover 24 years, from 1884 to 1907, inclusive. Although the records of gage height extend further back than the earlier date, the number of rainfall stations maintained on the basin previous thereto is not sufficient to render safe any conclusions with reference to precipitation. It is appreciated that a given depth of rainfall precipitated during the winter months will generally produce a greater run-off than the same depth would produce in August or September. Therefore an effort has been made to eliminate this source of error. Summing up the flood-producing rains for the 24-year period it is found that the total is 335, of which 313 occurred from December to May, inclusive, and the remaining 22 during the other portion of the year. It is apparent that the number of such rains from June to November is not sufficient to afford a basis of comparison. Therefore only the December to May floods will be considered. In making this comparison the ideal condition would be to compare the rainfalls and floods during identical conditions of climate, but such a refinement is impossible. On the other hand, the multiplication of data afforded by the large number of flood-producing storms in the December to May periods warrants the conclusion that the varying climatic conditions in this period are compensated, and the final conclusions drawn from the result must be worthy of confidence. On dividing the period covered by these 313 floods equally, two consecutive 12-year periods are afforded, which give a basis of comparison. The floods in the later period, resulting from a given depth of storm precipitation, are clearly shown to be more severe than in the earlier period. The method of presentation further makes it possible to compute the increase in flood tendency due to deforestation in the Tennessee.

The relation between storms and floods in the Tennessee basin during the periods December–May, inclusive, 1884–1895 and 1896–1907.

Period.	Storms in inches precipitated.											
	1 to 1.5.		1.5 to 2.		2 to 2.5.		2.5 to 3.		3 to 3.5.		3.5 to 4.	
	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.
1884-1895	7	5	12	6	6	15	5	9	5	13	6	30
1896-1907	8	3	11	10	9	23	11	30	4	13	1	6

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The relation between storms and floods in the Tennessee basin during the periods December–May, inclusive, 1884–1895 and 1896–1907—Continued.

Period.	Storms in inches precipitated.											
	4 to 4.5.		4.5 to 5.		5 to 5.5.		6 to 6.5.		7 to 7.5.		8 to 8.5.	
	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.	Storms.	Days of flood.
1884–1895	1	6	2	17	2	18	.....	.....	2	28	.....	.....
1896–1907	1	8	3	20	.....	.....	1	11	.....	.....	1	17

If we now divide the number of flood days by the number of storms, the result will be the number of days per storm. Applying this to each of the series in the above table, the following result is reached:

Days of flood per storm.

Period.	Storms in inches precipitated.							
	1 to 1.5.	1.5 to 2.	2 to 2.5.	2.5 to 3.	3 to 3.5.	3.5 to 4.	4 to 4.5.	4.5 to 5.
1884–1895	0.7	0.5	2.5	1.8	2.6	5	6	8.1
1896–1907	.4	.9	2.6	2.7	3.2	6	8	6.7
Percentage increase	−43	80	4	50	22	20	33	−17

The algebraic sum of the above percentages is 149.00 and the average is 18.75, which sums up the effect of deforestation on run-off from 1884 to 1907, inclusive.

FLOOD DAMAGES.

A complete census of flood damages for any year or series of years has never been attempted. Therefore, it will be impossible to present any figures for which precision may be claimed. The damages for particular floods in certain areas have from time to time and for one or another purpose been assembled and, in a few places, examinations have been made with great care by commissions and boards especially qualified for such work. The results of such examinations may be taken to form a basis for an estimate; but, for the present purpose, a better basis has been made available. During the present year the Geological Survey has made inquiry of all the railroads in the United States concerning flood losses during the period January 1, 1900, to August, 1908. The railroads were selected for this purpose because it is well known that they are, by reason of their location and extent, subject to far greater physical damage than any other single interest, and it was believed that from the figures so procured a fairly representative basis of estimate might be obtained. From previous studies of this matter it appeared that the railroad

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losses resulting from floods amount to about 10 per cent of the total physical loss arising therefrom, excluding, of course, the largest single item of loss, which is the depreciation of realty values arising from flood menace. The figures here presented will therefore exclude all consideration of this kind of loss.

The proportion of 10 per cent was arrived at from three points of view:

First. It has been the observation of the writer that, as a rule, the reported losses to railroads from floods have amounted to about this proportion.

Second. The actual investigations of flood losses, made by appraisal boards, and individual property returns covering fairly wide areas have approximated this proportion. Undoubtedly the most complete and comprehensive investigation of this kind was carried on by the northern New Jersey flood commission in 1903, after the great flood that arose in October of that year along Passaic River. The region comprehended in this investigation may be considered a typical one. It comprised the usual proportion of farm lands, city areas, highway bridges, railroad property, etc., and the proportion of railroad loss there was almost exactly 10 per cent of the total.

Third. One-tenth of the wealth of the United States consists of railroad property. This proportion was therefore used in the following estimates.

During each of the periods above named the returns from the railroads involved a varying percentage of the total mileage of the country. The mileage involved in each yearly estimate has been expressed as a percentage of the total mileage for that year, as given in the reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The several amounts were increased from the percentage that they represented to 100 per cent, to cover the entire mileage of the country. Inspection of the returns showed that this was a fair and reasonable method, because the reports were well distributed and represented a true proportion of that which might be expected to be the damage on the total mileage. This figure was then considered as 10 per cent of the total damage for the whole country and increased accordingly. The results are given in the following table:

Year.	Damage reported.	Percentage of total mileage reported.	Total railroad damage.	Estimated total damage.
1900	$666,253	14.6	$4,567,500	$45,675,000
1901	958,740	21.1	4,543,800	45,438,000
1902	1,225,468	22.2	5,520,100	55,201,000
1903	2,654,192	27.3	9,722,000	97,220,000
1904	2,476,724	31.3	7,884,100	78,841,000
1905	3,286,324	33.3	9,858,972	98,589,720
1906	2,727,511	37.3	7,312,400	73,124,000
1907	4,623,106	39.1	11,823,800	118,238,000
1908	6,517,577	27.4	23,786,000	237,860,000

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STORAGE OF FLOOD WATERS.

In the northeastern portion of the country there has been a large installation of reservoirs and a consequent saving of enormous amounts of flood water. The numerous lakes in that part of the United States, irrespective of those that have been developed artificially, have a beneficial effect. It is probable that 10 per cent of the flood waters that originate in New York and New England are saved by storage in artificial reservoirs, lakes, and ponds. In Minnesota, at the head of upper Mississippi River, practically the entire flood drainage from an extensive area is conserved. In the arid West there has been an extensive installation of reservoirs, some of which conserve practically all the flood waters on their respective basins. Considering the country as a whole, however, it is doubtful if more than 1 per cent of the flood water is saved.

The storage of floods is effected by forests and similar surface vegetation and by artificial reservoirs. The amount stored by forests is and probably will for a long time to come be indeterminate, since the forest is merely an agent in assisting the ground to absorb the water. The storage is therefore essentially ground storage and the ability of the forest to enhance this is dependent absolutely on the character of the soil beneath the forest. Therefore, to fully answer the question, "To what extent could flood waters be stored by forests?" it would be necessary to consider minutely the absorption properties of the various kinds of land surface in the United States. It will be possible at some future time to give an approximate and exceedingly useful reply to this question; but before that time arrives we must have more long-term gage records on our rivers. The diagrams presented with this paper (pp. 13 to 20) constitute as useful records as there are extant in the country, and a short consideration of them will plainly reveal the fact that, while they are exceedingly useful in indicating the trend of flood duration and frequency, they do not yet yield sufficient information to give even the widest approximation of the amount of water or the proportion of run-off that can be conserved.

The question is therefore one for the future, and our stream investigations should be carried on with this as one of the purposes in view.

The extent to which flood waters could be stored by reservoirs depends on the available reservoir capacity in the several river basins. As a rule, the more diversified the character of these basins, especially in contour, the greater facilities they afford for reservoir storage.

There is a great portion of the Mississippi Valley in which floods are not subject to correction under the reservoir plan. This is also

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true of certain coastal-plain streams like the Brazos and Colorado. It is probable that the streams draining one-third of the area of the United States must forever be subject to floods, and the only treatment that now appears feasible for these streams is the construction of levee systems. For the remaining two-thirds of the United States, investigations so far made indicate that from 55 to 60 per cent of the flood waters can be saved by the utilization of maximum storage capacity. Although the cost of such construction would be enormous in the aggregate, it is apparent that the saving that would accrue from relief from flood damages alone would soon return the entire investment. A glance at the estimated flood damages in the United States, page 25, shows the possibilities. In this connection it should be stated that in by far the larger proportion of the basins a saving of 55 to 60 per cent of the flood waters would insure practically entire relief from flood damages. It is not necessary to prevent floods absolutely; or, in other words, it is not necessary to secure uniformity of flow in any river in order to secure relief from flood damages. The construction of the reservoirs necessary to prevent floods would, under proper management, involve an increase in the water-power possibilities of the United States equal to about 60,000,000 horsepower. In the arid West the construction of reservoirs for flood prevention would provide water sufficient for the reclamation of many million acres of now worthless land. All of this, together with the assistance that such reservoirs would lend to navigation, constitutes the saving that would accrue from their construction. We are unable at the present time even to approximate the total figure, and therefore it must be summed up in the term "vast."

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DEVELOPED WATER POWERS.

Compiled by the Bureau of the Census, under the direction of W. M. STEUART, Chief Statistician for Manufactures.

Discussion by M. O. LEIGHTON.

SOURCES OF DATA.

A special census of the developed water powers of the United States has been made by the Bureau of the Census for the specific purposes of the conservation report. Previous inquiries of the same kind, made by this bureau, afforded a record of the names and locations of practically all the water-power developments that had taken place up to the dates thereof, and this record was used as the basis for the new census. Information concerning the developments that have been made since the date of the last census was procured through the Geological Survey, Forest Service, Bureau of Corporations, Post-Office Department, and many other agencies, both state and national. Special inquiry blanks were sent to all, including those that had figured in past censuses.

In making the new census it was necessary to procure the data in large measure by mail, and therefore it was necessary to simplify the inquiry and to secure only the facts absolutely necessary to a comprehensive summary of the developed water powers. The inquiry blank used for this purpose is reproduced below:

[Return this card to the Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C.]

WATER POWER, 1908.

This office is engaged in the preparation of a report on the developed and undeveloped water power of the United States. If you use water power, please answer the following inquiries. If you do not use water power, please so state, and give the names and addresses of any power plants in your neighborhood. The card should be returned in the inclosed official envelope.

Name _____
Post-office _____ State _____
Location of plant: County _____ State _____
Name of river or stream on which plant is located _____
Number of water wheels _____ Maximum horsepower _____
Horsepower actually developed during low-water season _____
Additional power that may be developed at same point on the same river or stream, horsepower _____
Auxiliary steam power used in same plant, horsepower _____
Character of industry _____
(Give name of principal product.)
Give names and addresses of other power plants in your neighborhood _____

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The character of the returns and the proportion of replies received indicate that the census is fairly complete. It is known that a greater number of the plants not accounted for in this census are of small capacity. There is, of course, some deficiency in the total; but it is believed that this is compensated by the general tendency among water-power owners to return statements based on actual wheel capacity installed rather than actual minimum power developed during the extreme low-water season. In all wheel installation it is the practice to develop above the minimum flow, and it follows that in the majority of power plants there must be a tendency to overstate the power actually developed during the lowest water. The final figures represent what is believed by those most conversant with the situation to be a reasonably accurate summary of the water power now developed in the country.

The material procured from the census has been arranged by drainage areas and combined into grand divisions, according to the plan followed in the report on undeveloped water power.

DEVELOPED POWERS.

Accompanying Table No. 1 gives a general summary of the horsepower developed in the United States and the number of wheels used for such development. It will be noted that this table gives results according to States as well as according to grand divisions.

Some interesting facts are shown. The total development in the country is 5,356,680 horsepower over 52,827 wheels, or an average development per wheel of about 100 horsepower. In the Northern Atlantic division there has been a greater water-power development than in any other, the total installation being 1,746,303 horsepower. The only other division that approaches the Northern Atlantic in development is that covering the drainage area of the St. Lawrence, including the Great Lakes, where there has been a development of 1,018,283 horsepower. The great power development in the Northern Atlantic division may largely be explained by the fact that the use of water power therein began at an earlier period than in any other divison. New England and the Middle Atlantic States are and have been essentially manufacturing in character, and water-power development has followed as a matter of course. It is also true that the presence of good powers in large numbers in this region has encouraged such development.

Comparisons of wheel capacities installed in various parts of the country are interesting. While the total figures show that the average power per wheel is 100 horsepower, the units in the various districts vary as follows:

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Division.	Unit capacity horsepower per wheel.	Division.	Unit capacity horsepower per wheel.
Northern Atlantic	80	St. Lawrence	148
Southern Atlantic	77	Colorado River	261
Eastern Gulf of Mexico	42	Southern Pacific	515
Western Gulf of Mexico	47	Northern Pacific	285
Eastern Mississippi	60	Interior drainage	338
Western Mississippi	139	Arctic Ocean	125

The large number and small unit capacity of wheels in the eastern part of the country compared with the smaller number and larger capacity in the western portions, including, especially, the rivers draining from the Rocky Mountains and the Sierras, may be explained: First, by the fact that in the eastern and central portions of the country the power privileges are of smaller capacity; and second, by the fact that in the eastern portions of the country a large number of the powers were installed at an early date, when it was the rule to establish small units. More recent practice has involved the establishment of larger units, and as the western installations are all recent, this practice, taken together with the existence of larger power privileges, gives the result that might be expected from a general survey of the situation.

Table 1 shows that New York State has the largest water-power development, the total being 885,862 horsepower. It is proper to add that the Niagara powers on the New York side assist largely in making up this figure. The second State in water-power development is California, the total being 466,774 horsepower, over 1,070 wheels, or a unit installation of about 436 horsepower. Water-power development in California is comparatively recent. The third State is Maine, with 343,096 horsepower, over 2,797 wheels, or an average of 123 horsepower per wheel. As the use of water power in this State is comparatively ancient, the contrast in unit capacity between it and California is significant.

Among the other interesting points is the fact that, although, as shown by the report on undeveloped water power, the Northern Pacific division can be made to furnish about one-third of the total minimum horsepower of the country, there is at the present time a development of only 450,000 horsepower, which indicates clearly that the most fertile field for power development remaining in the United States is this northwestern country.

Table 2 gives the installations by districts and drainage areas, special comment concerning which is unnecessary.

Census returns show that, out of a total of 31,537 powers reported, 602 are of capacity of 1,000 horsepower or more. Recent progress in water-power development has been marked by great installations.

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In former years the aggregate water power utilized in the country was made up largely of small units, which, while useful for local purposes and worthy of development, are not relatively important in the great question of power economics. The following summary gives the distribution of the powers of 1,000 horsepower and greater capacity, and it shows clearly that what was formerly believed to be an uncommonly great installation must now be considered a comparatively small feature.

Capacity distribution of powers of 1,000 horsepower and more.

1,000 to 5,000	459
5,000 to 10,000	65
10,000 to 15,000	27
15,000 to 20,000	13
20,000 to 25,000	17
25,000 to 40,000	11
40,000 to 60,000	4
60,000 to 100,000	3
100,000 and over	3
Total	602

Number of water powers by States and Territories, 1908.

United States	31,537	Missouri	277
		Montana	94
Alabama	1,382	Nebraska	157
Alaska	31	Nevada	32
Arizona	29	New Hampshire	876
Arkansas	203	New Jersey	560
California	559	New Mexico	48
Colorado	230	New York	3,148
Connecticut	893	North Carolina	2,614
Delaware	119	North Dakota	9
District of Columbia	1	Ohio	480
Florida	166	Oklahoma	25
Georgia	1,596	Oregon	345
Idaho	199	Pennsylvania	3,721
Illinois	155	Rhode Island	191
Indiana	222	South Carolina	846
Iowa	207	South Dakota	45
Kansas	118	Tennessee	1,793
Kentucky	691	Texas	147
Louisiana	64	Utah	200
Maine	1,222	Vermont	1,148
Maryland	496	Virginia	2,243
Massachusetts	1,370	Washington	322
Michigan	657	West Virginia	525
Minnesota	195	Wisconsin	580
Mississippi	273	Wyoming	33

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TABLE 1.—*General summary—Drainage basins by States.*

States.	Northern Atlantic.		Southern Atlantic.		Gulf of Mexico.				Mississippi River.			
					Eastern.		Western.		Tributaries from the east.		Tributaries from the west.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
United States	21,864	1,746,303	5,938	459,652	3,342	139,758	258	12,071	8,959	537,080	2,385	331,739
Alabama					1,539	56,603			265	105,091		
Alaska												
Arizona												
Arkansas											255	5,868
California												
Colorado							13	937			146	26,279
Connecticut	1,546	118,145										
Delaware	277	7,976										
District of Columbia	6	1,000										
Florida			13	420	194	4,119						
Georgia			854	90,036	1,307	74,255			153	2,296		
Idaho												
Illinois									413	50,116		
Indiana									298	11,525		
Iowa											461	17,304
Kansas											184	18,606
Kentucky									834	14,156		
Louisiana					35	615	22	296			22	273
Maine	2,797	343,096										
Maryland	679	21,403							15	312		
Massachusetts	2,749	260,182										
Michigan												
Minnesota									100	15,925	301	82,007
Mississippi					267	4,166			69	3,750		
Missouri											397	10,107
Montana											102	140,494
Nebraska											227	12,792
Nevada												
New Hampshire	1,799	183,167										
New Jersey	902	38,011									13	251
New Mexico							52	939				
New York	3,046	304,003							87	3,167		
North Carolina			4,049	140,918					930	21,[illegible]		
North Dakota									[illegible]	[illegible]		
Ohio												

Oklahoma														
Oregon	5,046	273,426								530	16,849			
Pennsylvania	387	37,165												
Rhode Island			1,301	207,242										
South Carolina														
South Dakota													68	11,112
Tennessee										2,160	95,060			
Texas								190	9,899				5	67
Utah														
Vermont	1,047	90,672												
Virginia	1,440	59,129	721	21,036						850	19,958			
Washington														
West Virginia	143	8,928								529	11,572			
Wisconsin										1,048	139,640			
Wyoming													55	3,585

States.	St. Lawrence River.		Colorado River.		Southern Pacific.		Northern Pacific.		Interior drainage.		Arctic Ocean.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
United States	6,896	1,018,283	285	74,428	822	423,707	1,659	[a] 489,454	353	115,044	66	8,261	52,827	5,356,680
Alabama													1,804	161,694
Alaska							106	17,289					106	17,289
Arizona			37	16,855									37	16,855
Arkansas													255	5,868
California					820	423,597	176	25,440	74	17,737			1,070	466,774
Colorado			194	51,662									353	78,878
Connecticut													1,546	118,145
Delaware													277	7,976
District of Columbia													6	1,000
Florida													207	4,539
Georgia													2,314	166,587
Idaho							261	60,533	24	18,210			285	78,743
Illinois													413	50,116
Indiana	197	17,628											495	29,153
Iowa													461	17,304
Kansas													184	18,606
Kentucky													834	14,156
Louisiana													79	1,184
Maine													2,797	343,096
Maryland													694	21,715
Massachusetts													2,749	260,182
Michigan	1,498	205,019											1,498	205,019
Minnesota	20	46,800									50	7,648	531	152,380
Mississippi													336	7,922

[a] Includes Alaska.

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TABLE 1.—*General summary—Drainage basins by States*—Continued.

States.	St. Lawrence River.		Colorado River.		Southern Pacific.		Northern Pacific.		Interior drainage.		Arctic Ocean.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
Missouri													397	10,107
Montana							42	7,558					204	148,052
Nebraska													227	12,792
Nevada			1	3			7	252	31	20,322			39	20,577
New Hampshire													1,799	183,167
New Jersey													902	38,011
New Mexico			10	1,120									56	2,310
New York	3,380	578,692											6,513	885,862
North Carolina													3,975	162,284
North Dakota											16	613	16	613
Ohio	191	8,549											873	34,840
Oklahoma													29	2,994
Oregon													590	231,379
Pennsylvania					2	110	586	231,203	2	66			5,596	290,990
Rhode Island	20	715											387	37,165
South Carolina													1,301	207,242
South Dakota													68	11,112
Tennessee													2,160	95,060
Texas													195	9,966
Utah									222	59,609			260	64,265
Vermont			38	4,656									2,018	170,276
Virginia	971	79,604											3,011	100,123
Washington							475	147,041					475	147,041
West Virginia													672	20,500
Wisconsin	619	81,276											1,667	220,916
Wyoming			5	132			6	138					66	3,855

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TABLE 2. Drainage basins.

I. NORTHERN ATLANTIC

Drainage basins.	Maine.		New Hampshire.		Vermont.		Massachusetts.		Connecticut.		Rhode Island.		New York.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	2,797	343,096	1,799	183,167	1,047	90,672	2,749	260,182	1,546	118,145	387	37,165	3,046	304,003
St. Johns River	147	13,681												
St. Croix River	89	20,500												
Penobscot River	518	70,454												
Kennebec River	659	63,936												
Androscoggin River	590	101,355	93	22,100										
Presumpscot River	179	20,569												
Saco River	169	22,302	68	3,030										
Merrimac River			877	90,082			589	71,251						
Connecticut River			574	50,977	929	85,512	1,117	123,309	490	33,101				
Blackstone River							182	14,111			156	17,324		
Thames River							88	8,499	478	45,214	1	25		
Housatonic River							138	14,206	364	31,685			17	459
Hudson River					118	5,160	54	5,245					2,083	275,125
Passaic River													30	775
Raritan River														
Delaware River													208	5,924
Susquehanna River													645	20,187
Potomac River														
James River														
Minor streams (Chesapeake Bay)														
Minor streams (northern Atlantic)	446	30,299	187	16,978			581	23,561	214	8,145	230	19,816	63	1,533

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

I. NORTHERN ATLANTIC—Continued.

Drainage basins.	New Jersey.		Delaware.		Pennsylvania.		Maryland.		Virginia.		West Virginia.		District of Columbia.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	902	38,011	277	7,976	5,046	273,426	679	21,403	1,440	59,129	143	8,928	6	1 000	21,864	1,746,303
St. Johns River															147	13,681
St. Croix River															89	20,500
Penobscot River															518	70,454
Kennebec River															659	63,936
Androscoggin River															683	123,455
Presumpscot River															179	20,569
Saco River															237	25,332
Merrimac River															1,466	161,333
Connecticut River															3,110	292,899
Blackstone River															338	31,435
Thames River															567	53,738
Housatonic River															519	46,350
Hudson River	17	680													2,272	286,210
Passaic River	179	12,805													209	13,580
Raritan River	204	6,309													204	6,309
Delaware River	427	15,327	167	5,314	1,616	47,649									2,418	74,214
Susquehanna River					3,233	222,530	71	2,217							3,949	244,934
Potomac River					197	3,247	260	4,766	462	11,457	142	8,920	6	1,000	1,067	29,390
James River									607	40,165	1	8			608	40,173
Minor streams (Chesapeake Bay)			35	901			346	14,389	363	7,429					744	22,719
Minor streams (northern Atlantic)	75	2,890	75	1,761			2	31	8	78					1,881	105,092

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Drainage basins.	Virginia.		South Carolina.		North Carolina.		Georgia.		Florida.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	721	21,036	1,301	207,242	3,049	140,918	854	90,036	13	420	5,938	459,652
Chowan River	113	2,381			64	1,147					177	3,528
Roanoke River	607	18,647			198	17,419					805	36,066
Tar River					166	6,431					166	6,431
Neuse River					317	11,365					317	11,365
Cape Fear River					673	27,539					673	27,539
Pedee (Yadkin) River			228	7,867	1,124	50,432					1,352	58,299
Santee River			573	179,708	478	26,028					1,051	205,736
Savannah River			294	16,178			245	43,357			539	59,535
Ogeechee River							88	1,965			88	1,965
Altamaha River							506	44,531			506	44,531
Minor streams (southern Atlantic)	1	8	206	3,489	29	557	15	183	13	420	264	4,657

III. EASTERN GULF OF MEXICO.

Drainage basins.	Florida.		Georgia.		Alabama.		Mississippi.		Louisiana.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	194	4,119	1,307	74,255	1,539	56,603	267	4,166	35	615	3,342	139,758
Suwanee River	16	265	29	962							45	1,227
Apalachicola River	36	565	784	62,991	114	7,717					934	71,273
Mobile River:												
Tombigbee River					340	5,193	79	1,097			419	6,290
Alabama River			464	9,869	799	37,892					1,263	47,761
Pearl River							86	1,532	18	312	104	1,844
Minor streams (eastern Gulf of Mexico)	142	3,289	30	433	286	5,801	102	1,537	17	303	577	11,363

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

IV. WESTERN GULF OF MEXICO.

Drainage basins.	Louisiana.		Texas.		New Mexico.		Colorado.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	22	296	190	9,899	33	939	13	937	258	12,071
Sabine River	11	126	24	263					35	389
Neches River			35	538					35	538
Trinity River			12	279					12	279
Brazos River			13	448					13	448
Colorado River (of Texas)			25	1,503					25	1,503
Guadalupe River			69	6,447					69	6,447
San Antonio River			6	215					6	215
Nueces River			3	36					3	36
Rio Grande			1	102	16	370	13	937	30	1,409
Pecos River			2	68	17	569			19	637
Minor streams (western Gulf of Mexico)	11	170							11	170

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V. MISSISSIPPI RIVER [illegible]

Drainage basins.	Mississippi.		Alabama.		Georgia.		Tennessee.		North Carolina.		Virginia.		West Virginia.		Kentucky.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	69	3,756	265	105,091	153	2,296	2,160	95,060	926	21,366	850	19,958	529	11,572	834	14,156
Yazoo River																
Minor eastern tributaries, lower Mississippi River	61	709					62	796							4	67
Ohio River:																
Tennessee River	8	3,047	265	105,091	153	2,296	1,691	85,548	710	19,260	378	6,214			8	103
Cumberland River							397	8,576							284	4,431
Green River							10	140							205	3,634
Kentucky River															158	2,916
Licking River															52	928
Big Sandy River											20	261	20	320	91	924
Kanawha River									216	2,106	452	13,483	282	7,023		
Monongahela River													129	2,324		
Youghiogheny River													3	50		
Minor southern tributaries													95	1,855	32	1,153
Allegheny River																
Beaver River																
Muskingum River																
Scioto River																
Great Miami River																
Wabash River																
Minor northern tributaries																
Illinois River																
Rock River																
Wisconsin River																
Chippewa River																
St. Croix River																
Minor eastern tributaries, upper Mississippi River																

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

V. MISSISSIPPI RIVER (TRIBUTARIES FROM THE EAST)—Continued.

Drainage basins.	Pennsylvania.		Ohio.		Indiana.		Illinois.		Wisconsin.		Minnesota.		New York.		Maryland.		Total for drainage basins.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	530	16,849	682	26,291	298	11,525	413	50,116	1,048	139,640	100	15,925	87	3,167	15	312	8,959	537,080
Yazoo River																		
Minor eastern tributaries, lower Mississippi River																	127	1,572
Ohio River:																		
Tennessee River																	3,213	221,559
Cumberland River																	681	13,007
Green River																	215	3,774
Kentucky River																	158	2,916
Licking River																	52	928
Big Sandy River																	131	1,505
Kanawha River																	950	22,612
Monongahela River	18	262															147	2,586
Youghiogheny River	56	1,205													15	312	74	1,567
Minor southern tributaries	3	70															130	3,078
Allegheny River	331	8,146											87	3,167			418	11,313
Beaver River	121	7,154	44	2,320													165	9,474
Muskingum River			204	8,880													204	8,880
Scioto River			69	2,045													69	2,045
Great Miami River			187	8,245	27	1,224											214	9,469
Wabash River					238	9,993	4	72									242	9,665
Minor northern tributaries	1	12	178	4,801	24	465	6	118									209	5,396
Illinois River					9	243	222	36,162	29	893							260	37,298
Rock River							167	13,214	210	10,967							377	24,181
Wisconsin River									476	74,491							476	74,491
Chippewa River									157	24,976							157	24,976
St. Croix River									58	11,025	13	1,750					71	12,775
Minor eastern tributaries, upper Mississippi River							14	550	118	17,288	87	14,175					219	32,013

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Drainage basins.	Louisiana.		Arkansas.		Texas.		Oklahoma.		New Mexico.		Colorado.		Kansas.		Missouri.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	22	273	255	5,868	5	67	29	2,994	13	251	146	26,279	184	18,606	397	10,107
Minnesota River																
Wapsipinicon River																
Des Moines River																
Missouri River:																
Big Sioux River																
James River																
Milk River																
Marias River																
Jefferson River																
Madison River																
Gallatin River																
Minor northern tributaries															38	938
Musselshell River																
Yellowstone River																
Little Missouri River																
Cheyenne River																
White River																
Niobrara River																
Platte River											126	21,803				
Kansas River											1	75	122	10,192		
Osage River													1	18	71	1,448
Minor southern tributaries													1	15	31	502
Arkansas River			74	1,100							19	4,401	22	1,205	194	5,874
Cimarron River:																
Canadian River							7	291	13	251						
Minor tributaries			108	3,797			4	160					38	7,176		
Red River	22	273	73	971	5	67	18	2,543								
Minor western tributaries Mississippi River															63	1,345

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

V. MISSISSIPPI RIVER (TRIBUTARIES FROM THE EAST)—Continued.

Drainage basins.	Pennsylvania.		Ohio.		Indiana.		Illinois.		Wisconsin.		Minnesota.		New York.		Maryland.		Total for drainage basins.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	530	16,849	682	26,291	298	11,525	413	50,116	1,048	139,640	100	15,925	87	3,167	15	312	8,959	537,080
Yazoo River																		
Minor eastern tributaries, lower Mississippi River																	127	1,572
Ohio River:																		
Tennessee River																	3,213	221,559
Cumberland River																	681	13,007
Green River																	215	3,774
Kentucky River																	158	2,916
Licking River																	52	928
Big Sandy River																	131	1,505
Kanawha River																	950	22,612
Monongahela River	18	262															147	2,586
Youghiogheny River	56	1,205													15	312	74	1,567
Minor southern tributaries	3	70															130	3,078
Allegheny River	331	8,146											87	3,167			418	11,313
Beaver River	121	7,154	44	2,320													165	9,474
Muskingum River			204	8,880													204	8,880
Scioto River			69	2,045													69	2,045
Great Miami River			187	8,245	27	1,224											214	9,469
Wabash River					238	9,993	4	72									242	9,565
Minor northern tributaries	1	12	178	4,801	24	465	6	118									209	5,396
Illinois River					9	243	222	36,162	29	893							260	37,298
Rock River							167	13,214	210	10,967							377	24,181
Wisconsin River									476	74,491							476	74,491
Chippewa River									157	24,976							157	24,976
St. Croix River									58	11,025	13	1,750					71	12,775
Minor eastern tributaries, upper Mississippi River							14	550	118	17,288	87	14,175					219	32,013

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Drainage basins.	Louisiana.		Arkansas.		Texas.		Oklahoma.		New Mexico.		Colorado.		Kansas.		Missouri.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	22	273	255	5,868	5	67	29	2,994	13	251	146	26,279	184	18,606	397	10,107
Minnesota River																
Wapsipinicon River																
Des Moines River																
Missouri River:																
Big Sioux River																
James River																
Milk River																
Marias River																
Jefferson River																
Madison River																
Gallatin River																
Minor northern tributaries															38	938
Musselshell River																
Yellowstone River																
Little Missouri River																
Cheyenne River																
White River																
Niobrara River																
Platte River											126	21,803				
Kansas River											1	75	122	10,192		
Osage River													1	18	71	1,448
Minor southern tributaries													1	15	31	502
Arkansas River			74	1,100							19	4,401	22	1,205	194	5,874
Cimarron River:																
Canadian River							7	291	13	251						
Minor tributaries			108	3,797			4	160					38	7,176		
Red River	22	273	73	971	5	67	18	2,543								
Minor western tributaries Mississippi River															63	1,345

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

VI. MISSISSIPPI RIVER (TRIBUTARIES FROM THE WEST)—Continued.

Drainage basins.	Iowa.		Nebraska.		Wyoming.		Montana.		South Dakota.		Minnesota.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	461	17,304	227	12,792	55	3,585	162	140,494	68	11,112	361	82,007	2,385	331,739
Minnesota River											40	1,712	40	1,712
Wapsipinicon River	54	1,655											54	1,655
Des Moines River	27	1,360									3	198	30	1,558
Missouri River:														
Big Sioux River	8	261							15	3,115			23	3,376
James River									20	411			20	411
Milk River														
Marias River														
Jefferson River							38	20,619					38	20,619
Madison River							13	17,336					13	17,336
Gallatin River							6	405					6	405
Minor northern tributaries	62	2,274					44	67,215	11	231			155	70,658
Musselshell River														
Yellowstone River					19	1,389	26	6,224					45	7,613
Little Missouri River														
Cheyenne River					20	331			22	7,355			42	7,686
White River			1	30									1	30
Niobrara River			30	950									30	950
Platte River			74	5,572	16	1,865							216	29,240
Kansas River			89	5,156									212	15,423
Osage River													72	1,466
Minor southern tributaries			33	1,084			35	28,695					100	30,290
Arkansas River													309	12,580
Cimarron River:														
Canadian River													20	542
Minor tributaries													150	11,133
Red River													118	3,854
Minor western tributaries Mississippi River	310	11,754									318	80,097	691	93,196

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Drainage basins.	Minnesota.		Wisconsin.		Michigan.		Indiana.		Ohio.		Pennsylvania.		New York.		Vermont.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	20	46,800	619	81,276	1,498	205,019	197	17,628	191	8,549	20	715	3,380	578,692	971	79,604	6,896	1,018,283
Lake Superior	20	46,800	6	2,227	73	34,775											99	83,802
Lake Michigan			613	79,049	963	145,179	172	16,463									1,748	240,691
Lake Huron					213	13,878											213	13,878
St. Clair River					85	3,331											85	3,331
Lake Erie					164	7,856	25	1,165	191	8,549	17	593	129	4,838			526	23,001
Niagara River													103	191,426			103	191,426
Lake Ontario											3	122	2,025	209,368			2,028	209,490
Lake Champlain (Richelieu River)													373	50,345	971	79,604	1,344	129,949
Minor St. Lawrence tributaries													750	122,715			750	122,715

VIII. COLORADO RIVER.

Drainage basins.	Arizona.		New Mexico.		Colorado.		Wyoming.		Utah.		Nevada.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	37	16,855	10	1,120	194	51,662	5	132	38	4,656	1	3	285	74,428
Gila River	26	16,611	7	995									33	17,606
Williams River	1	9											1	9
Little Colorado River	8	185											8	185
San Juan River			3	125	45	18,260							48	18,385
Grand River					145	32,132			1	6			146	32,138
Green River					4	1,270	5	132	17	3,378			26	4,781
Fremont River									4	93			4	90
Virgin River									9	188	1	3	10	193
Minor tributaries	2	50							7	991			9	1,041

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TABLE 2.—*Drainage basins in the United States*—Continued.

IX. SOUTHERN PACIFIC.

Drainage basins.	California.		Oregon.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	820	423,597	2	110	822	423,707
Minor streams	74	50,183	.....	.....	74	50,183
San Francisco Bay	11	6,455	.....	.....	11	6,455
Sacramento River	576	280,735	2	110	578	280,845
San Joaquin River	159	86,224	.....	.....	159	86,224

X. NORTHERN PACIFIC.

Drainage basins.	Oregon.		Idaho.		Wyoming.		Montana.		Washington.		California.		Nevada.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	586	231,203	261	60,533	6	138	42	7,558	475	147,041	176	25,440	7	252	[a] 1,553	[a] 472,165
Columbia River:																
Willamette River	299	92,531	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	299	92,531
Des Chutes River	17	60,832	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17	60,832
John Day River	24	22,083	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	24	22,083
Snake River	55	35,771	186	36,402	6	138	.....	.....	28	4,728	.....	.....	7	252	282	77,291
Spokane River	.....	.....	70	23,176	.....	.....	.....	.....	33	14,473	.....	.....	.....	.....	103	37,649
Pend Oreille (Clark Fork)	.....	.....	2	600	.....	.....	37	6,838	7	237	.....	.....	.....	.....	46	7,675
Yakima River	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	52	8,838	.....	.....	.....	.....	52	8,838
Minor tributaries	55	10,176	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	186	33,099	.....	.....	.....	.....	241	43,275
Kootenai River	.....	.....	3	355	.....	.....	5	720	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	1,075
Puget Sound	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	130	84,270	.....	.....	.....	.....	130	84,270
Minor streams, northern Pacific	136	9,810	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	1,306	176	25,440	.....	.....	342	36,646

[a] Exclusive of Alaska, with 100 wheels, of 17,280 horsepower.

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XI. GREAT BASIN.

Drainage basins.	Utah.		Nevada.		California.		Oregon.		Idaho.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.	Wheels.	Horse-power.
	222	59,609	31	20,322	74	17,737	2	66	24	18,210	353	115,944
Wasatch Mountains drainage	222	59,609							24	18,210	246	77,819
Humboldt River			31	20,322			2	66			33	20,388
Sierra Nevada drainage					74	17,737					74	17,737
Minor streams in Great Basin												

XII. HUDSON BAY.

Drainage basins.	North Dakota.		Minnesota.		Total.	
	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.	Wheels.	Horsepower.
	16	613	50	7,648	66	8,261
Red River of the North	16	613	50	7,648	66	8,261
St. Marys River						

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UNDEVELOPED WATER POWERS.

By M. O. Leighton.

The surveys and examinations necessary to a thorough and accurate report of the water-power resources of the United States have never been completed. In certain parts of the country the facts are sufficiently well known to make it possible to present a tolerably accurate statement. In other parts the information is fragmentary, and therefore power estimates must be considered approximate. Taken as a whole, however, the schedule here appended will be sufficient for the purposes for which it was prepared.

In order to present the information in a systematic way, the drainage areas of the United States have been united into groups according to geographic distribution. These group boundaries have been arbitrarily determined according to what seems to be the most convenient arrangement for the purposes of this report. The grouping is as follows: Atlantic Ocean, Pacific Ocean, Arctic Ocean, and interior drainage. These groups have been subdivided into 12 principal divisions, as follows: I. Northern Atlantic; II. Southern Atlantic; III. Eastern Gulf of Mexico; IV. Western Gulf of Mexico; V. Mississippi River (tributaries from the east); VI. Mississippi River (tributaries from the west); VII. St. Lawrence; VIII. Colorado River; IX. Southern Pacific; X. Northern Pacific; XI. Great Basin; XII. Hudson Bay.

SOURCES OF DATA.

The data used in this report have been obtained from the following sources:

The records of flow are mainly from the reports and files of the water-resources branch of the United States Geological Survey. As the period over which these records extend varies in length, a seven-year period, extending from 1900 to 1906, inclusive, was taken as a basis and all values of flow are the mean for these years.

The profiles and elevations have been obtained as follows:

(*a*) River surveys made by the United States Geological Survey, U. S. Army Engineer Corps, and others.

(*b*) Elevations as given by railroad and other levels.

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(*c*) Dictionary of Altitudes, Bulletin No. 274, United States Geological Survey.

(*d*) United States Geological Survey topographic maps.

(*e*) Miscellaneous maps and reports of various State and other organizations.

In the use of maps the following preferences have been given: (1) United States Geological Survey topographic sheets; (2) special detailed surveys; (3) General Land Office maps; (4) United States post-route maps; (5) Rand & McNally Atlas sheets.

WATER POWER.

The schedule presented in this report gives the amount of available water power according to three classifications—(1) that which may be produced by the minimum flow; (2) the assumed maximum development; and (3) the additional power that may be recovered by developing the available storage capacity in the upland basins and using stored water to compensate the low-water periods. The data as a whole have been considered without reference to present practicability of development or present market. For the purposes of this report it has been assumed that all the power in the United States will some day be required. Such an interpretation is the logical one when natural resources are being considered. In other words, the schedule here presented must be interpreted for the future rather than for the present. The reader should not assume that all the power here shown is economically available to-day. Much of it, indeed, would be too costly in development to render it of commercial importance under the present conditions of market and the price of fuel power. The schedule shows therefore what will be the maximum possibilities in the day when our fuel shall have become so exhausted that the price thereof for production of power is prohibitive, and the people of the country shall be driven to the use of all the water power that can reasonably be produced by the streams.

Consideration has been given to all the conditions that determine the possibilities of power production on the various rivers of the country. Especially has the slope of the stream channels been scrutinized. Theoretically, of course, the energy developed by the various rivers is that produced by the total fall of the water from source to mouth, but it has not been assumed that, even under ideal conditions of market, all this power will ever be commercially available. The flatter portions of the river channels can never be profitably developed for power and they have not been included in the schedule. The rivers have been divided into sections of varying length, determined by channel slope, and the fall and flow of each

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section have been obtained from the best available source of information. The records of stream flow collected by the water-resources branch of the Geological Survey have almost uniformly been the only available resort, although acknowledgments should be made to the state water-supply commissions of New York and Pennsylvania; the state engineers of New York, Colorado, California, Oregon, and Nebraska; the territorial engineer of New Mexico; the state geological surveys of Maine, New Jersey, North Carolina, Virginia, Georgia, and Wisconsin; and various other bodies and individuals, public and private, who in the past have maintained measurements in cooperation with the United States Geological Survey or independently. Use has also been made of certain river gage records of the United States Weather Bureau and of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army.

In determining the flow for the various sections the data of flow per square mile, procured from the sources above enumerated, have been applied. The drainage areas above the upper and the lower limits of each section have been determined and a mean taken for the whole section. This has been used as a factor along with the flow per square mile in determining the minimum flow for that section. This figure, together with 90 per cent of the total fall from head to foot, has been used to determine theoretical horsepowers, according to the usual formulas. It is obvious that in practice the entire fall along any stretch of river or at any power privilege can not be effectively utilized. In few places can even 90 per cent be utilized at the present time; but, inasmuch as these figures are supposed to cover future as well as present practice, and inasmuch as it may reasonably be assumed that future practice in water-power installation will improve, it is believed that 90 per cent of the fall along any particular power privilege or section may eventually be realized.

The results of calculations of theoretical power on 90 per cent total fall have been reduced 10 per cent to allow for inefficiency of wheels. It is recognized that 90 per cent efficiency is too high to be used in calculations of power at the present time, 75 or 80 per cent being the usual installation maximum. Here again, however, we are computing for future conditions, as well as present ones, and it may confidently be expected that, with the improvement of turbines, a greater percentage of the theoretical power will be realized on the shaft and improvements will before long render possible a 90 per cent efficiency.

In determining the minimum horsepower, the minimum flow for the lowest two consecutive seven-day periods in each year was determined and the mean of these values for the period of record was taken as the minimum flow. It is obvious that this is somewhat

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higher than the absolute minimum, but the latter is usually of so short duration that it does not equal the practicable minimum that may profitably be installed.

The assumed maximum economical development has been determined on the assumption that it is good commercial practice to develop wheel installation up to that amount the continuance of which can be assured during six months of the year, on the assumption that the deficiency in power during the remainder of the year can be profitably provided by the installation of fuel power plants as auxiliaries. In many parts of the country it has been shown conclusively that it is economical to develop up to that amount which can be had continuously during the highest four months of the year, and, while it is probable that there are parts of the country where the limit should be the highest eight or ten months, it is believed that the period used in these schedules is a very conservative average. The minimum weekly flow for each month of the year has been arranged according to magnitude, and the sixth value has been taken as the basis for estimating the power, the mean of these values for the record period in each case being that used in the computations.

An endeavor has been made to determine the maximum power that might be produced if the practicable maximum storage available on the drainage areas were established. Surveys on many of the basins make possible a fairly close statement; but, inasmuch as fully three-fourths of the country has not been surveyed in a manner suitable for this purpose, only rough estimates can be given for the entire area. There are two methods by which an approximate estimate of total power can be made.

The first is to consider the power on those drainage areas for which suitable surveys are available and to increase the amount by the equivalent of the proportion left unsurveyed. An examination of the facts will show that the amount obtained by this method will be too low. It is apparent from a review of the index map showing the areas covered by such surveys that a fairly large proportion, probably one-third, comprises country in which good reservoir sites are either lacking or are uncommon in occurrence. Such portions include large parts of the Dakotas, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, and Louisiana, together with great areas on the Atlantic and Pacific coastal plains. Therefore to increase the total available water power from storage that may be computed on surveyed portions by the ratio of total surveyed portions to the entire country would hardly do justice to the situation. Nevertheless, the figures are here presented.

It is found that the total power available in the surveyed portions, including storage, is about 53,000,000 horsepower. If this be considered as one-fourth, to correspond with the portion of the country

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surveyed, the total power of the country, with practical maximum storage will be about 212,000,000 horsepower.

The second method of computation involves consideration of the increase of power available from storage in the several portions of the country in which surveys have been made, and applying the ratio of increase to unsurveyed and similar country in those regions. The topographic surveys, while they cover only one-fourth of the total area of the country, have nevertheless been prosecuted in all sections, so that the storage data are applicable to all physiographic types that are comprised within the United States. Applying the information in this way, we obtain a grand total of 230,800,000 horsepower, which, it appears to the writer, is a more accurate figure than that obtained by the first method.

In any case, therefore, it may be assumed with confidence that, were all practicable storage sites utilized and the water properly applied, there might be established eventually in the country a total power installation of at least 200,000,000 horsepower and probably much more.

In the actual management of storage for water power or for any other water utilization the stored waters are released according as needed, and they must be distributed according to the condition of the river and the length of the dry season. Therefore, water from storage is required for a varying number of months, according to the climatological conditions governing the river discharge. Some assumption in this matter has been necessary, and it is believed from the experience that has been gained in the study of rivers throughout the country that it will be fair and conservative to assume that, if any given storage be considered as released uniformly during six months of the year, and the natural flow from the unconserved areas be considered as sufficient to maintain at least an equal flow during the remaining six months, the results will not depart too widely from the actual conditions as regards total power that may be achieved in practice, unless, indeed, they are too conservative. It is well known that on some rivers an economical use of stored water would involve a shorter period of total release than six months to insure the most uniform distribution of discharge. This would provide for a greater power development than the six months of distribution. Nevertheless, the latter has been considered a fair average, and has been used in the accompanying schedule.

Summing up the whole country according to the divisions thereof heretofore discussed, we obtain the general summary given below. Especial mention should be made of the fact that the results here given do not include the State of Pennsylvania, the figures for which had not been furnished up to the date of this report.

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Estimate of stream flow and water power in the United States.

Principal drainages.	Drainage area in square miles.	Flow per annum in billion cubic feet.	Horsepower.	
			Minimum.	Assumed maximum development.
North Atlantic to Cape Henry, Va	159,879	8,942	1,712,050	[a] 3,186,600
Southern Atlantic to Cape Sable, Fla	123,920	5,560	1,253,000	1,957,800
Eastern Gulf of Mexico to Mississippi River	142,220	6,867	559,000	963,000
Western Gulf of Mexico west of Vermilion River	[b] 433,700	2,232	433,760	822,600
Mississippi River (tributaries from east)	333,600	12,360	2,619,590	[a] 5,344,600
Mississippi River (tributaries from west, including Vermilion River)	905,200	9,580	3,948,970	7,085,000
St. Lawrence River to Canadian line	[c] 299,720	8,583	6,682,480	8,090,000
Colorado River above Yuma, Ariz	225,000	521	2,918,500	5,546,000
Southern Pacific to Point Bonita, Cal	70,700	2,193	3,215,400	7,808,300
Northern Pacific	290,400	15,220	12,979,700	24,701,000
Great Basin	223,000	.....	518,000	801,000
Hudson Bay	62,150	614	75,800	212,600
Total	3,269,490	72,672	36,916,250	66,518,500

[a] Not including area in Pennsylvania.
[b] Includes Rio Grande in Mexico.
[c] Includes drainage in Canada.

It will be noted from the foregoing that the region furnishing by far the greatest water-power possibilities is the northern Pacific, which comprises essentially the basins of Columbia and Sacramento rivers, the power possibilities there being about one-third those of the whole United States.

The following schedules give in detail figures concerning run-off and potential water power over the various drainage areas included within the several districts:

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Estimate of stream flow and water power in the United States.

I. NORTHERN ATLANTIC.[a]

Stream.	States drained.	Drainage area (square miles).	Flow from area.				Horsepower.	
			Second-feet.	Second-feet per square mile.	Per annum.		Minimum.	Assumed maximum development.
					Depth in inches.	Billion cubicfeet.		
St. Johns[b]	Maine	7,500	13,200	1.76	23.90	416	30,500	73,800
St. Croix	do	1,630	4,260	2.61	35.40	134	28,700	49,000
Penobscot	do	8,500	16,700	1.96	26.60	526	157,000	298,000
Kennebec	do	5,970	11,000	1.84	25.00	347	144,000	284,000
Androscoggin	Maine, New Hampshire	3,500	7,500	2.14	29.00	236	168,000	218,000
Presumpscot	Maine	600	1,010	1.68	22.80	32	(c)	(c)
Saco	Maine, New Hampshire	1,720	4,060	2.36	32.00	128	20,900	69,000
Merrimac	New Hampshire, Massachusetts	5,020	8,140	1.62	22.00	257	111,000	190,000
Connecticut	Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut	11,100	22,100	1.99	27.00	697	230,000	491,000
Blackstone	Massachusetts, Rhode Island	(c)	.....	(c)	(c)	(c)	5,280	12,700
Thames	Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island	(c)	.....	(c)	(c)	(c)	14,400	28,600
Housatonic	New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut	1,980	4,300	2.17	29.40	136	43,100	66,200
Hudson	New York, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Jersey	13,400	25,400	1.90	25.80	802	298,000	473,000
Passaic	New York, New Jersey	949	2,060	2.17	29.40	65	10,000	22,000
Raritan	New Jersey	1,110	2,390	2.15	29.20	75	4,370	9,710
Delaware	New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware	13,100	25,800	1.97	26.70	814	.....	.....
Susquehanna	New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland	27,400	42,800	1.56	21.20	1,350	.....	.....
Potomac	Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Pennsylvania	14,300	17,300	1.21	16.40	545	176,000	462,000
James	Virginia	10,400	14,000	1.35	18.30	442	196,000	300,000
Minor streams (Chesapeake Bay)	Virginia, Maryland	12,800	20,300	1.59	21.60	640	43,300	82,000
Minor streams (northern Atlantic)	Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia.	18,900	41,200	2.18	29.60	1,300	31,500	57,600
Total		159,879	.....	.....	.....	8,942	.....	.....

[a] St. Johns to Cape Henry, Va.

[b] Drainage in United States only.

[c] Included in minor streams (northern Atlantic).

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Chowan	Virginia, North Carolina	5,000	7,000	1.40	19.00	221	5,100	10,100
Roanoke	do	9,740	12,200	1.25	17.00	385	205,000	343,000
Tar	North Carolina	4,360	5,500	1.26	17.10	174	4,000	8,000
Neuse	do	5,550	7,320	1.32	17.90	231	5,000	10,000
Cape Fear	do	9,030	11,100	1.23	16.70	350	40,000	80,000
Pedee (Yadkin)	North Carolina, South Carolina	10,600	16,900	1.60	21.70	533	222,000	334,000
Santee	do	14,800	24,500	1.66	22.50	772	400,000	590,000
Savannah	South Carolina, Georgia	11,100	17,500	1.58	21.40	552	290,000	438,000
Ogeechee	Georgia	5,140	6,530	1.27	17.20	206	4,300	10,700
Altamaha	do	14,100	17,700	1.26	17.10	558	57,600	94,000
Minor streams (southern Atlantic)	Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida	34,500	50,100	1.45	19.70	1,580	20,000	40,000
Total		123,920				5,560	1,253,000	1,957,800

III. EASTERN GULF OF MEXICO.[b]

Suwanee	Florida, Georgia	9,970	15,000	1.50	20.40	473	(c)	(c)
Apalachicola	Alabama, Georgia, Florida	18,800	30,300	1.61	21.80	956	204,000	326,000
Mobile	Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi	42,100	66,200	1.57	21.30	2,090		
Tombigbee	Alabama, Mississippi						50,000	100,000
Alabama	Alabama, Georgia						275,000	487,000
Pearl	Mississippi, Louisiana	8,650	12,300	1.42	19.30	388	(c)	(c)
Minor streams (eastern Gulf of Mexico)	Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana	62,700	93,800	1.50	20.40	2,960	30,000	50,000
Total		142,220				6,867	559,000	963,000

IV. WESTERN GULF OF MEXICO.

Sabine	Texas, Louisiana	20,700	16,700	0.807	11.00	527	2,020	5,050
Trinity	Texas	17,700	9,370	.529	7.18	295	3,180	12,800
Brazos	Texas, New Mexico	48,800	9,760	.200	2.72	308	7,460	20,900
Colorado (Texas)	do	39,000	3,790	.097	1.32	120	28,100	55,700
Guadalupe	Texas	10,500	3,750	.357	4.84	118	36,000	43,400
Rio Grande[d]	Texas, New Mexico, Colorado	248,000	7,880	.032	.43	249	267,000	545,000
Pecos	Texas, New Mexico						55,000	87,800
Minor streams (western Gulf of Mexico)	Louisiana, Texas	49,000	19,500	.398	5.40	615	35,000	52,000
Total		433,700				2,232	433,760	822,650

[a] Cape Henry, Va., to Cape Sable, Fla.
[b] Eastern Gulf of Mexico included between Cape Sable, Fla., and Mississippi River.
[c] Included in minor streams (eastern Gulf of Mexico).
[d] Includes drainage area and flow in Mexico, but does not include power.

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Estimate of stream flow and water power in the United States—Continued.

V. MISSISSIPPI RIVER (TRIBUTARIES FROM THE EAST).

Stream.	States drained.	Drainage area (square miles).	Flow from area.				Horsepower.	
			Second-feet.	Second-feet per square mile.	Per annum.		Minimum.	Assumed maximum development.
					Depth in inches.	Billion cubic feet.		
Mississippi [a]		1,238,800	696,400	0.562	7.63	21,940	147,000	335,000
Eastern tributaries lower Mississippi, below Missouri River (exclusive of Ohio).		42,800	50,100	1.17	15.90	1,580	15,000	30,000
Ohio	Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia.	204,000	270,000	1.32	17.90	8,500	[b] 40,000	[b] 100,000
Tennessee	Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, Virginia.						1,210,000	1,950,000
Cumberland	Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia						76,800	159,000
Green	Kentucky, Tennessee						11,400	28,500
Kentucky	Kentucky						18,100	45,100
Licking	do						5,360	13,400
Big Sandy	Kentucky, West Virginia, Virginia						21,700	57,600
Kanawha	West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina						402,000	1,020,000
Monongahela	West Virginia, Pennsylvania						71,000	283,000
Minor southern tributaries (Ohio)	Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia, Pennsylvania						31,800	7,700
Allegheny	New York, Pennsylvania							
Beaver	Pennsylvania, Ohio						6,000	18,300
Muskingum	Ohio						16,500	53,100
Scioto	do						3,630	17,200
Great Miami	Ohio, Indiana						28,700	74,600
Wabash	Indiana, Illinois						40,600	119,000
Minor northern tributaries (Ohio)	Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Pennsylvania						10,000	41,200
Eastern tributaries, upper Mississippi, above Missouri River.	Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota	86,800	72,300	.833	11.30	2,280		
Illinois	Illinois						167,000	261,000
Rock	Illinois, Wisconsin						20,800	46,400
Wisconsin	Wisconsin						121,000	244,000
Chippewa	do						99,000	238,000
St. Croix	Wisconsin, Minnesota						39,000	90,000
Minor eastern tributaries upper Mississippi (above Missouri River).	Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota						17,200	43,200
Total		333,600				12,360		

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VI. MISSISSIPPI RIVER (TRIBUTARIES FROM THE WEST).

Western tributaries upper Mississippi (above Missouri River).	Minnesota, South Dakota, Iowa, Missouri	84,700	42,500	0.501	6.79	1,340		
Minnesota	Minnesota, South Dakota						17,300	46,600
Wapsipinicon	Iowa, Minnesota						4,380	10,700
Des Moines	do						59,800	222,000
Minor western tributaries upper Mississippi (above Missouri River).	Minnesota, South Dakota, Iowa, Missouri						132,000	275,000
Missouri [c]	Missouri, Louisiana, Minnesota, South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas.	527,000	[d] 94,000	.178	2.41	2,960	300,000	600,000
Big Sioux	Iowa, Minnesota, South Dakota						21,600	38,900
Milk	Montana						30,000	50,000
Marias	do						55,600	75,400
Jefferson	do						317,000	482,000
Madison	do						216,000	276,000
Gallatin	do						94,000	126,000
Minor northern tributaries (Missouri).	Missouri, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana						170,000	230,000
Musselshell	Montana						23,100	26,400
Yellowstone	Montana, Wyoming						1,430,000	2,170,000
Niobrara	South Dakota, Nebraska						122,000	140,000
Platte	Nebraska, Wyoming, Colorado						290,000	657,000
Kansas	Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas						105,000	287,000
Osage	Missouri, Kansas						7,890	19,000
Minor southern tributaries (Missouri).	Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana.						190,000	360,000
Western tributaries lower Mississippi, below Missouri River (exclusive of Arkansas).	Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, Oklahoma	116,000	102,000	.880	11.90	3,220		
Arkansas	Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, New Mexico, Texas.	177,500	65,500	.369	5.00	2,060	110,000	182,000
Cimarron	Oklahoma, Kansas, New Mexico, Texas						11,500	44,000
Canadian	Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico						83,900	348,000
Minor tributaries Arkansas	Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, New Mexico, Texas.						67,000	145,000
Red	Louisiana, Arkansas, Texas, Oklahoma						48,900	148,000
Minor western tributaries lower Mississippi (below Missouri River).	Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri						42,000	126,000
Total		905,200				9,580	3,948,970	7,085,000

[a] Includes all drainage from the Mississippi to Vermilion River, inclusive.
[b] Horsepower at Louisville, Ky.
[c] Includes flow but exclusive of power in Canada.
[d] Mean annual discharge 1879–1890, inclusive, from Annual Report Chief of Engineers, 1891, p. 3826.

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Estimate of stream flow and water power in the United States—Continued.

VII. ST. LAWRENCE RIVER.[a]

Stream.	States drained.	Drainage area (square miles).	Flow from area.				Horsepower.	
			Second-feet.	Second-feet per square mile.	Per annum.		Minimum.	Assumed maximum development.
					Depth in inches.	Billion cubic feet.		
St. Lawrence at Ogdensburg, N. Y.		288,000	252,000	0.876	11.90	7,950		
Lake Superior	Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan	70,100	77,300	1.02	13.80		120,000	236,000
Lake Michigan	Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana	68,900	60,500	.878	11.90		246,000	350,000
Lake Huron	Michigan	68,900	60,000	.871	11.80		83,400	110,000
St. Clair	do	214,000	198,000	.926	12.60		3,380	6,760
Lake Erie	Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, Michigan	[b] 40,800	22,000	[b] .540	7.33		28,000	62,300
Niagara	New York	255,000	220,000	.863	11.70		5,800,000	[c] 6,500,000
Lake Ontario[d]	do	33,000	32,100	.973	13.20		200,000	400,000
Lake Champlain (Richelieu River)	New York, Vermont	7,750	13,500	1.74	23.60	426	102,000	147,000
Minor St. Lawrence tributaries in New York (below Ogdensburg).	New York	3,970	6,550	1.65	22.40	207	99,700	272,000
Total		299,720				8,583	6,682,480	[e] 8,090,060

VIII. COLORADO RIVER.

Colorado River above Yuma, Ariz.	Utah, Nevada, California, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Wyoming.	225,000	16,500	0.0733	1.00	521	1,150,000	2,080,000
Gila	Arizona, New Mexico						72,500	241,000
Little Colorado	do						12,000	24,000
San Juan	Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Colorado						149,000	341,000
Grand	Colorado, Utah						703,000	1,310,000
Green	Utah, Wyoming, Colorado						812,000	1,510,000
Minor tributaries	Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Nevada, California						20,000	40,000
Total		225,000				521	2,918,500	5,546,000

IX. SOUTHERN PACIFIC.

Minor streams (southern Pacific)	California	22,800	7,410	0.325	4.42	233	30,400	88,300
San Francisco Bay:								
Sacramento	California, Oregon	31,400	45,500	1.45	19.70	1,430	2,420,000	4,580,000
San Joaquin	California	[g] 16,500	[g] 16,800	[g] 1.02	[g] 13.80	[g] 530	[h] 759,000	[h] 3,140,000
Total		70,700				2,193	3,215,400	7,808,300

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X. NORTHERN PACIFIC.[i]

Columbia [j]	Oregon, Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, Washington, Nevada	231,400	312,000	1.35	18.30	9,850	4,060,000	6,250,000
Willamette	Oregon						602,000	1,670,000
Des Chutes	do						953,000	1,920,000
John Day	do						79,700	158,000
Snake	Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Wyoming, Nevada						1,880,000	4,300,000
Spokane	Washington, Idaho						237,000	610,000
Pend Oreille (Clark Fork)	Idaho, Montana						1,530,000	2,620,000
Yakima	Washington						194,000	620,000
Kootenai	Montana, Idaho						207,000	357,000
Minor tributaries, Columbia	Oregon, Washington						718,000	1,230,000
Puget Sound	Washington	14,300	59,200	4.15	56.30	1,870	719,000	1,400,000
Minor streams, Northern Pacific	California, Oregon, Washington	44,700	111,000	2.48	33.60	3,500	1,800,000	3,560,000
Total		290,400				15,220	12,979,700	24,701,000

XI. GREAT BASIN.

Wasatch Mountains drainage	Utah, Wyoming, Idaho	44,300	7,620	0.172	2.33		92,000	149,000
Humboldt	Nevada	25,200	2,420	.096	1.30		20,000	30,000
Sierra Nevada drainage	California, Nevada, Oregon	[h] 55,900	[h] 18,900	[h] .338	[h] 4.58		[k] 396,000	[k] 607,000
Minor streams in Great Basin	California, Nevada, Utah, Oregon	97,600	10,100	1.03	1.40		10,000	15,000
Total		223,000					518,000	801,000

XII. HUDSON BAY.

Red (of the North) [l]	North Dakota, Minnesota	50,000	6,420	0.128	1.74	203	25,000	52,000
St. Mary	Montana	650	1,510	2.31	31.40	48	30,500	120,000
Rainy [m]	Minnesota	11,500	11,500	1.00	13.60	363	20,300	40,600
Total		62,150				614	75,800	212,600

[a] Values of drainage areas and discharge of the Great Lakes drainages derived chiefly from report of E. S. Wheeler, assistant engineer, U. S. Army. The discharge value is given for each of the Great Lakes as a unit from 1860 to 1892, and includes the run-off from both land and water surfaces. It shows the total discharge from both United States and Canadian territory.

[b] Includes Lake St. Clair.

[c] 3,500,000 horsepower at Niagara Falls on the basis of mean annual discharge.

[d] Includes Oswegatchie River and minor St. Lawrence tributaries above Ogdensburg, N. Y.

[e] Total horsepower of Niagara River and of tributaries to the Great Lakes in the United States.

[f] Southern Pacific included between Mexican line and Point Bonita, Cal.

[g] Exclusive of Tulare Lake drainage (see Sierra Nevada drainage).

[h] Includes Tulare Lake drainage.

[i] Northern Pacific included between Point Bonita, Cal., and Canadian line.

[j] Includes drainage area and flow in Canada, but does not include power.

[k] Does not include Tulare Lake drainage (see San Joaquin River).

[l] Includes drainage area and flow of Pembina and Mouse rivers in Canada, but does not include power.

[m] Drainage in United States only.

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Estimate of stream flow and water power in the United States—Continued.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Principal drainages.	Drainage area (square miles).	Flow per annum (billion cubic feet).	Minimum.	Assumed maximum development.
Northern Atlantic to Cape Henry, Va	159,879	8,942	.....	.....
Southern Atlantic to Cape Sable, Fla	123,920	5,560	1,253,000	1,957,800
Eastern Gulf of Mexico to Mississippi River	142,220	6,867	559,000	963,000
Western Gulf of Mexico west of Vermilion River	[a] 433,700	[a] 2,232	433,760	822,650
Mississippi River (tributaries from east)	333,600	12,360	.....	.....
Mississippi River (tributaries from west, including Vermilion River)	905,200	9,580	3,948,970	7,085,000
St. Lawrence River to Canadian line	[b] 299,720	[b] 8,583	6,682,480	8,090,060
Colorado River above Yuma, Ariz	225,000	521	2,918,500	5,546,000
Southern Pacific to Point Bonita, Cal	70,700	2,193	3,215,400	7,808,300
Northern Pacific	290,400	15,220	12,979,700	24,701,000
Great Basin	223,000	.....	518,000	801,000
Hudson Bay	62,150	614	75,800	212,600
Total	3,269,489	72,672	.....	.....

[a] Includes Rio Grande in Mexico.

[b] Includes drainage in Canada.

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IRRIGATION.

By F. H. Newell,
Director United States Reclamation Service.

LEGAL STATUS.

The National Government has passed three important laws for the encouragement of irrigation; (*a*) The desert land law, which was best adapted to individual enterprise in the development of comparatively small tracts of land by irrigation systems of moderate size; (*b*) the Carey Act, which was designed to encourage corporate irrigation of public land under state auspices; (*c*) the Reclamation Act, which provides for construction of irrigation works by the National Government itself. Enumeration was made by the United States census of the acreage irrigated in 1889, 1899, and 1902. With those figures as a guide, and by the use of the general information possessed by the Reclamation Service, an estimate has been made of the acreage irrigated in 1907. The results given in the following table include very large areas which receive only one or two irrigations by flood water, and others where the supply is inadequate.

Irrigation in the United States.

NUMBER OF FARMS IRRIGATED.

Year.	United States.	Arid region.	Semiarid region.	Rice region.
1907	[a] 167,200	152,000	7,800	7,400
1902	133,356	122,156	7,021	4,179
1899	110,117	102,819	4,897	2,401
1889	54,136	52,584	1,552	.....

[a] Estimated.

NUMBER OF ACRES IRRIGATED.

1907	[a] 11,000,000	9,700,000	425,000	876,000
1902	9,681,289	8,471,641	405,449	600,199
1899	7,778,904	7,963,273	266,417	251,214
1889	3,631,381	3,564,416	66,965	.....

[a] Estimated.

Irrigation by individual effort has been undertaken in each instance in a small way, but in the aggregate this method has led to the most

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important development and has resulted in the largest total acreage. It is also being developed to some extent by corporate enterprise, but results from this source are relatively meager, except where the corporations are of a community character. Cooperative communities have done much in the past and their future works will probably be important. Development by States under the provisions of the Carey Act promises well in some localities where there is efficient state supervision, as in Idaho, Wyoming, and Oregon; large results have already been accomplished in the first-named State. National development through the agency of the Reclamation Act is beginning to show results and is steadily proceeding. It has been confined mainly to those enterprises which are too large, too costly, or too slow in producing returns to tempt private or corporate investments.

The Reclamation Service has 29 projects in various stages of construction; these contemplate the ultimate irrigation of 2,700,000 acres, against a total acreage of 367,023 for which water was furnished in 1908. The following table shows the distribution of the projects, the total ultimate irrigable area under each, and the irrigated areas for 1908 and 1909:

Irrigation projects.

State.	Project.	Irrigable area.	Irrigated 1908.
		Acres.	*Acres.*
Arizona	Salt River	272,000	115,000
California	Orland	14,000	.....
California-Arizona	Yuma	92,000	3,800
Colorado	Grand Valley	62,000	.....
	Uncompahgre	147,000	15,600
Idaho	Minidoka	74,000	24,464
	Payette-Boise	315,000	55,000
Kansas	Garden City	8,500	5,558
Montana	Huntley	28,000	4,400
	St. Mary	.....	.....
	Sun River	256,000	.....
Nebraska-Wyoming	North Platte	164,000	23,220
Nevada	Truckee-Carson	200,000	27,450
New Mexico	Carlsbad	20,000	8,000
	Hondo	10,000	1,500
	Rio Grande	180,000	17,000
North Dakota	Buford-Trenton	12,500	1,200
	Williston	12,000	2,000
North Dakota-Montana	Yellowstone	66,000	.....
Oklahoma	Cimarron	.....	.....
Oregon	Umatilla	20,000	2,500
Oregon-California	Klamath	187,000	9,378
South Dakota	Belle Fourche	100,000	5,000
Utah	Strawberry	60,000	.....
Washington	Okanogan	10,000	1,353
	Sunnyside	90,000	42,000
	Tieton	30,000	.....
	Wapato	120,000	.....
Wyoming	Shoshone	150,000	2,660
		2,700,000	367,023

Under the Carey Act there have been approved 1,716,424 acres for construction, and patents have been granted covering 293,083 acres.

The following table shows the location of the lands being irrigated under this act:

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Segregations applied for under the act of August 18, 1894 (28 Stat. L., 372–422), and the acts amendatory thereof, with the action taken thereon, from the passage of the act to July 1, 1908.

[Areas in acres.]

State.	Selected.	Rejected, relinquished, etc.	Approved, not patented.	Approved and patented.
Colorado	59,807.94	5,704.95	54,102.99	.....
Idaho	1,180,566.17	265,828.94	662,254.00	156,954.90
Montana	104,587.98	2,792.53	83,498.54	18,296.91
Nevada	12,644.61	8,000.00	.....	.....
Oregon	432,202.53	78,507.31	245,287.52	50,063.13
Utah	328,327.40	236,980.83	48,226.74	.....
Washington	155,649.39	155,649.39	.....	.....
Wyoming	965,598.64	198,994.18	623,054.44	67,768.72
Total	3,239,384.66	952,458.13	1,716,424.23	293,083.66

Oregon segregation list No. 5, covering 58,344.57 acres, is now pending before the Secretary on appeal from the decision of the General Land Office rejecting it.

Wyoming segregation list No. 27, covering 26,936.03 acres, was rejected by the General Land Office, which decision was affirmed by the department, but said decision has not yet become final.

Irrigation under the Indian Service is rapidly increasing.

The extent to which the irrigated area in the arid and semiarid regions can be increased can not be accurately estimated with present knowledge. If all the run-off waters of the arid region could be conserved and employed in irrigation, the total area might, perhaps, be brought to nearly 60,000,000 acres. This is very uncertain, however, as our knowledge of run-off is confined to only a portion of the streams, and is incomplete; furthermore, such an estimate involves assumptions regarding the duty of water that may introduce large errors.

It is known, however, that large portions of the water of the arid region can not be used in irrigation, as no irrigable land exists upon which it can be brought at feasible cost. In general, it may be stated that the value of irrigated land is increasing, and certain developments are tending to decrease costs of construction, so that it is impossible to draw any approximate line of demarkation, even if we had full knowledge regarding present costs. This would require elaborate surveys, which have not been made. For these reasons any present estimate of the total irrigable area would necessarily be little better than a guess. With present data, the closest statement is probably between 40,000,000 and 50,000,000 acres, including that now under ditch.

The subjects of irrigation, forestry, navigation, power, domestic water supply, and drainage are all closely interrelated and should be thoroughly studied together, not only in the arid but in the humid regions. No one of these questions can be properly treated without full regard to all the others. Proper study of these comprehensive

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questions should include more extended observations of rainfall and evaporation, especially in high altitudes, and of the annual flow of all streams. Comprehensive topographic maps should be made showing the areas of drainage basins, the location of reservoir sites, and their relation in altitude and location to irrigable lands and to power and navigation resources. Such maps are the basic information most urgently needed for all land classification, and without them no wise policy can be adopted.

WATER LAWS.

Both state and national laws are incomplete in permitting and encouraging the settlement and improvement of lands which should be reserved for reservoir sites. Thorough surveys should be made and all feasible reservoir sites discovered and reserved for development.

The present laws in some States tend to promote irrigation, but in others they do not. The most primitive form of regulation of the use of water in irrigation is best exemplified by the present laws of the State of California. These declare the principles of priority and beneficial use, and provide that claims to the use of water shall be recorded in the form of a notice of appropriation, and shall be perfected by application to a beneficial use. At the same time they try to recognize as concurrent on the same stream rights derived by prior appropriation and rights depending on riparian ownership. The riparian doctrine of water rights should be definitely and permanently abrogated in all arid regions. This has been done in some States by constitutional provision and in some by judicial decision. In all the States of the arid region where the riparian doctrine is recognized, material modifications in the old common-law doctrine have been made and put into effect.

The form and theory of these laws have been developed by several of the States, elaborating upon the principles of the California laws and the methods established in that State.

The operation of the earlier forms of these laws places no restraint upon appropriations of water. The courts in passing upon the claims of the appropriators, having scant information concerning the amount of water available for use, with no guide to the quantities which should be applied in the cultivation of crops, and confronted with the excessive claims of the parties, have often adjudicated rights to the use of water many times in excess of the amount carried by the stream.

The knowledge obtained during recent years concerning the discharge of streams and the use of water has caused such decrees to become exceptional in present practice. Nevertheless, the need for a more careful regulation of the appropriation and use of water has been apparent for many years.

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In 1890 the State of Wyoming enacted a code of water laws providing for supervision of the utilization of the water supply through a state engineer and state board of control who adjudicate rights to the use of water in the first instance. The division superintendents and water masters have immediate charge of the distribution of the water in the various water divisions.

Nebraska subsequently adopted a code of water laws similar to the laws of Wyoming.

Idaho, Utah, and Nevada in 1903 adopted codes of water laws based upon those of Wyoming with, however, a number of important modifications dictated by experience and the development of irrigation practice.

At the sessions of the legislatures of Oregon and Washington in 1903, the governors were directed to appoint commissions to prepare and submit drafts of a code of irrigation law.

At a joint session of the two commissions with the then chief engineer and other members of the Reclamation Service held in August, 1904, the fundamental principles of a modern irrigation code were discussed. There was also some consideration of the provisions which should be incorporated in such a code to facilitate the operations of the Federal Government in carrying on the work of constructing the irrigation systems contemplated by the act of Congress approved June 17, 1902 (32 Stat., 388), known as the Reclamation Act.

After this meeting, a state code of water laws was drafted by Mr. Morris Bien, supervising engineer of the United States Reclamation Service, which, in 1905, was adopted without material change by the legislatures of North Dakota, South Dakota, and Oklahoma. The legislatures of Oregon, Washington, and New Mexico adopted parts of this code, but omitted some of the most important features. This code does not involve any new principles, but constitutes a revision and combination of the features of the more modern statutes, arranged as a consistent and complete code.

PROPOSED WATER CODE.

A state code of water laws should provide for the appropriation, adjudication, and apportionment of the waters of the State, and divides itself naturally into four branches.

First. A declaration of the fundamental principles upon which the right to use water shall be based.

Second. The adjudication of rights to the use of water claimed under the previous laws, thus determining the unappropriated public waters.

Third. The regulation, control, and determination of the rights to water to be subsequently acquired.

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Fourth. The regulation and control of the distribution of water, rights to the use of which have been established.

The code under discussion is arranged to provide appropriate procedure for the application of these principles.

Under the first heading the fundamental principles are few and well established, namely, that all the waters within the limits of the State belong to the public and are subject to appropriation for beneficial use, except from sources of supply which are navigable; that the prior appropriation of water shall be the basis, and beneficial use the measure and the limit of the right; that the use of water is a public use, and private parties may exercise the right of eminent domain for the utilization thereof; and that water used for irrigation shall be appurtenant to the land on which it is used.

Under the second heading, providing for the adjudication of rights claimed under prior laws, it is now generally conceded that the final adjudication must be by the courts. The codes of the different States contemplate various forms of procedure. In the code referred to, a state engineer, appointed for six years by the governor subject to confirmation by the Senate, is to make a complete hydrographic survey of a stream system, obtaining all the data necessary to determine the amount of water available and the rights of the parties entitled to the use of it. This material is turned over to the attorney-general of the State, who is required to enter suit promptly for the determination of the rights of all parties and to prosecute the same diligently to a conclusion. In all suits for the determination of the right to the use of the waters of any stream system, all who claim the right to use such waters shall be made parties. In all suits involving the determination of water rights, the attorney-general is required to intervene on behalf of the State, if in the opinion of the state engineer the public interest requires it.

The third subject, namely, that of the regulation, control, and determination of rights to the use of water to be acquired, is placed in the hands of the state engineer. The procedure proposed is substantially the same as that adopted in the other States having a modern irrigation code with some differences of detail.

The principal feature to be noticed is that before any work looking to the construction of an irrigable system is commenced, and after the state engineer has passed upon the form and substance of the application, the intention to appropriate the water shall be published in a newspaper circulated in the community. After such publication the state engineer will approve the application if no valid objection is presented.

When the construction is completed, the works are to be inspected and approved by the state engineer, who will then determine their capacity, which will limit the amount of the appropriation. Afterwards when the water is applied to a beneficial use, the state engineer

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makes a further inspection, whereupon he issues a license for the appropriation of the amount of water which has been applied to a beneficial use. A time limit is fixed for completion of construction and for beneficial use.

For the distribution of the water, which comes under the fourth branch, the States are divided by the law into water divisions by drainage areas, each under the supervision of a water commissioner appointed by the supreme court of the State. Their function being the distribution of water under judicial decree or appropriation, they may be regarded as, in a sense, officers of the court. The water commissioners with the state engineer constitute a board of water commissioners, of which the latter is president. The water commissioners each serve six years, their terms being so arranged that a new one is appointed every two years. This board has general supervision over the waters of the State.

The actual work of distributing the waters to those entitled to use them is performed by water masters appointed by the water commissioners with the approval of the state engineer. Each water master has charge of a water district set apart by the state engineer, as found necessary from time to time. The operations of the water master are under the supervision of the water commissioner, and their acts are subject to appeal to the state engineer.

The cost of the water distribution is borne by the water users. The general expenses of the state engineer and the water commissioners are paid by the State. The greater part, if not all, of this expense will be returned to the state treasury by the fees collected by the state engineer and by the repayment of the cost of hydrographic surveys by the parties to the suits for adjudication.

Special reference should also be made to the features of the draft relating to the work under the federal Reclamation Act.

In order that the State may obtain the full benefit of this work and to prevent serious interference with, and perhaps the entire abandonment of, the projects which are considered for investigation, it is provided that the water supply for such projects shall be reserved from general appropriation until the investigations of the Reclamation Service shall determine the precise amount required for the project, the remainder being then released from such reservation.

It is also provided that state lands coming under such project shall be disposed of in harmony with the plans for the disposition of the lands of the United States, and that lands required for the reclamation project for irrigation works shall be transferred to the United States without charge.

In all sales of state lands after the enactment of the code, the conveyance is to reserve right of way for ditches or canals constructed by authority of the United States.

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The theory of these provisions is that the State regulates the appropriation of the water, exercising this power and holding the land in trust for the public, and when the interests of the public are so directly involved as in these large irrigation projects, and when, further, there is no element of individual speculation or profit in the construction of the works, which are for the purpose of establishing the maximum number of homes on the land, it is the duty of every State to which the Reclamation Act is applicable to assist with every resource under its control.

It will be of interest to review several of the other provisions of the draft.

Units of measurement are established; the cubic foot per second for the flow of water and the acre-foot for volume. The miner's inch is fixed as one-fiftieth of a cubic foot per second, unless a different ratio has been agreed upon by contract or established by actual measurement or use. The miner's inch has been used in some States as a unit, but it is unsatisfactory, because it is not easily defined with exactness.

The amount of water which may be appropriated for irrigation is limited to 1 cubic foot per second for 70 acres or its equivalent.

While it is conceded that water used for irrigation must be appurtenant to the land, the fact should be recognized that conditions may arise to make it impracticable or uneconomical to continue to irrigate a particular tract. Provision is made so that the use of water may be severed from the land after application to the state engineer, due publication of notice of such intention, and approval by the state engineer. Similar provision is made for a change in the nature of the use to which the water is applied, or in the place of diversion, storage, or use.

The subject of seepage water is one that has given much trouble, and provision is made for the appropriation thereof in the same manner as other waters, with the requirement that the appropriator must pay reasonable charges for storage or carriage to the owners of the irrigation works from which it comes, provided that the seepage can be traced to such works beyond reasonable doubt.

All decisions of the state engineer or water commissioners affecting a substantial right are subject to appeal to the courts.

RECENT STATE LAWS.

In the session of 1907 the Montana legislature considered a draft of a code prepared by a commission appointed by the governor which followed substantially the code referred to, but it was not adopted. The same is true with the legislature of Oregon.

During the year 1908 there has been a general movement toward the preparation of a code substantially in the form considered in

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the State of Oregon, and it is probable that it will be strongly urged upon the legislature early next year.

In many of the States statutes have been adopted tending toward the system discussed, and as this procedure is gradually enforced and modified as may be found advisable after experience, those States in which such laws have been enacted will do much toward the proper promotion of the irrigation industry.

It is generally conceded that those States in which statutes of this kind are not in force can best assist in the development of irrigation by following the principles and procedure there indicated.

One important feature of the law of irrigation has thus far received no attention in legislation, namely, the regulation of interstate waters. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Kansas-Colorado case (206 U. S., 46) and the decisions of some of the district courts of the United States in other cases, together with some decisions by state courts, have shown a tendency to consider this question, but in no case has there been an announcement of a principle which tends to meet the complicated conditions.

All the cases concerning interstate waters have involved only specific rights of the litigants; nothing has yet been accomplished outlining the method of providing for an adjudication of the waters of an interstate stream in such manner as to determine all the rights involved.

The principal difficulties arise from the fact that suit may be brought by one party against another and a decision obtained, which would not, however, bind anyone who is not party to the suit, and the complications in judicial procedure are such as to make it difficult, if not impracticable, under present conditions and rulings to bring into consideration in any one case all rights on interstate streams in two or more States and so arrange that one adjudication shall determine the rights of each party as against all other users of water from that stream.

Whether this matter can be adjusted by the courts themselves without the assistance of legislation or whether legislation is absolutely necessary has not yet been demonstrated.

It has been proposed by some that Congress should provide for a tribunal empowered to investigate claims to the use of water of interstate streams and to prepare reports upon all facts affecting priorities and the use of water, the same to be submitted to the federal courts for adjudication, following in general the procedure outlined in the proposed code in regard to the adjustment of water rights within the State.

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UNDERGROUND WATERS.

By W. C. Mendenhall.

INTRODUCTION.

Underground waters constitute one of the three natural subdivisions of precipitation. These subdivisions are evaporation, surface run-off, and percolation. That part of the precipitation which passes below the soil surface by seepage into the soil pores becomes thereby a part of the body of underground waters. Eventually it is returned to the air to begin again its circuit through the air and back to earth. This return to the air may be accomplished very quickly or very slowly. Capillarity and evaporation may withdraw the earth moisture and return it to the atmosphere before it has reached any considerable depth in the soil mantle, or it may pass beyond the reach of these forces and begin a journey through the soil pores or the rock masses that may continue for a few hundred feet or a few hundred miles. The waters may even accumulate in a porous rock mass and may remain there stored and practically motionless for centuries or for geologic epochs. All of that portion of the precipitation that is absorbed and remains underground for either a long or a short period, following a long or a short course, constitutes the ground water. There is, in addition, a certain amount of original water, either magmatic or included with the sediments at the time of their deposition. The aggregate quantity of this is undoubtedly very great, but as it is in general inaccessible to man, little attention need be given it in a discussion of water as a resource.

An estimate of the quantity of surface waters is a large but a relatively simple problem. It can be solved by the patient application through long periods of well-determined engineering methods. The resulting estimates, since they are those of the engineer and the mathematician, are correct within a limited percentage of error, because all the factors of the problem are capable of close determination. But although the quantity of surface waters is measurable, its maximum possible use is not rigidly determinable, because that problem contains a number of variable factors. Man's mastery over the mechanic arts is constantly increasing. That which is impossible to him to-day becomes possible to-morrow. Furthermore, economic

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controls are constantly shifting. A water power that is not available this year, not because of unsolved mechanical problems, but because of cost, may be easily available next year, because a railroad has been built, or a mine has been opened, or population has shifted. These are things that neither the mathematician nor the economist can predict. They introduce into the problem of determining the possible future use of any resource a factor so variable that the result is of doubtful value. Suggestions only can be made; rigid determinations are not possible.

As to ground waters, neither the determination of the total quantity nor of the maximum use is capable of close solution. The first involves general estimates of factors not directly measurable, such as the percentage of pore space in deeply buried and inaccessible material, soils, and rocks. These estimates must be made by the deductions of an inexact science, geology, instead of through the measurements of an exact science, engineering. The same variables enter into the determination of the maximum possible use of ground waters as into the maximum possible use of surface waters, namely, different and constantly shifting economic controls. It may be highly profitable to pump ground waters 500 feet vertically for the irrigation of citrus lands in southern California whose product is worth $250 per acre per year, whereas it may not be possible to pump 50 feet vertically in another locality, where the products are not worth $10 per acre per year. Notwithstanding, some such crude estimate as may be made of the quantity of these resources is helpful, since it gives us a concrete conception of the amounts with which we are dealing.

QUANTITY.

Estimates that vary widely have been made as to the total amount of this ground water. These estimates range from an amount sufficient to cover the earth to a depth of 96 feet (Fuller) to an amount sufficient to cover it to a depth of 7,500 feet (Delesse). The lower estimate is the later and may be regarded as of the greater value. The determination of the total quantity of underground water in existence, however, while a question of scientific interest, is of no practical moment, since only a very small proportion of the total is accessible to man and can therefore be made use of by him. And again, of the relatively small amount that is within reach, only that proportion that, if withdrawn, will be restored annually can be utilized, because, obviously, withdrawals in excess of this mean reduction of the principal and eventual bankruptcy.

Hence, although impressive estimates of the total may be made—as, for instance, the statement that there are 600 cubic miles of potable

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ground waters beneath the State of Florida, 800 cubic miles in the Great Central Valley of California, 1,000 cubic miles in the Dakota sandstone aquifer, and 10,000 cubic miles in the sediments of the Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains—these statements are not merely valueless, they are sadly misleading, because, if issued without explanation, the inference would follow that such a tremendous amount of water could be extracted from these districts and used by man. This inference is wholly unjustified for a number of reasons. In the first place, only a limited although variable percentage of the water that saturates those parts of the rock or soil masses that are within reach of pumps can be extracted in development; the remainder, much the larger proportion, being capillary and subcapillary, is not capable of extraction in any commercial way.

Again, these estimates of total ground waters include those at great depth, utterly beyond the reach of any pumps or known devices for their recovery. And, finally, of the very small proportion of the total that can be brought to the surface and made useful to man, only an amount should be taken out that is equal to the annual restorations; otherwise there will be a gradual depletion of the supply and a corresponding increase in the cost of the product. Hence, as a practical people, we are not in the least concerned with the total quantity of ground waters, but only with the possible annual accessions to the total, for this controls use.

USE.

The use of ground waters in a limited way for domestic and farm supplies is well-nigh universal. Municipal use, although not so general, is also extensive; whereas use for irrigation, confined, of course, to the arid and semiarid States, has begun to attract attention only since power development, either by the utilization of the energy of running water or by means of small power plants of the steam or internal combustion type, has become general. With the imperfect data at hand it is not possible to estimate the total volume of ground waters now used throughout the United States, but it is believed that in Florida at least 2,000 second-feet are developed and in California more than one-half as much. The development in these two States, therefore, representing as they do more than the average development in the East and the West, is about 3,000 second-feet. Florida and California include about 7 per cent of the area of the United States. If the development throughout our domain can be regarded as on the average one-half as intense as in these two States, the total ground waters used if united in one stream would equal twice the volume of the Potomac at Point of Rocks, Md., in 1906, with a drainage area of 9,650 square miles, or if a smaller factor

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is used and the average intensity of development be regarded as one-third that of the two States named, we reach the conclusion that the ground waters now in use would make a river the size of the Colorado at Yuma, Ariz., with a drainage area of 225,000 square miles. Expressed in still another way, this volume is equal to somewhat less than 1 per cent of the total stream flow in the United States. It is to be clearly understood that this represents only artificial development, a direct product of man's activity, and does not include the natural springs which represent the unassisted return of ground waters to the surface. To these is due a very large although undetermined proportion of the low-water flow of all our streams.

PRESENT TENDENCIES.

One of the late phases of the irrigation movement involves the use of ground waters for this purpose. This movement has been inspired by the success of certain communities that have developed such waters and reclaimed a large acreage by their use. The southern California communities, one-half of whose irrigation is accomplished in this way, illustrate what can be done. In the San Joaquin Valley development of this type is under way and will inevitably be greatly extended. Three hundred second-feet of ground waters are now used there; probably 3,000 second-feet are available, and colonies are being continually established and individual settlers are constantly entering the valley who are reclaiming more and more acreage by the use of this resource. In other western valleys, as in Utah and in Arizona, development of the same type is under way. Among the famous ground-water districts is that of the Great Plains, east of the Rocky Mountains, underlain by the Dakota sandstone, that yields some of the largest flowing wells of the United States. Another important district includes parts of Minnesota, Iowa, and Wisconsin, beneath whose surface lie water-bearing beds older than the Dakota sandstone, but the beds are locally quite as important. In these latter States irrigation is not practiced, but the ground waters are of great importance as sources of domestic and municipal supplies. In the Eastern and Southern States, those of the Atlantic and Gulf coastal plains are most favorably situated in regard to their ground-water supplies and in them development is more intense than elsewhere in the East. Attention has already been called to Florida, in which nearly 2,000 second-feet of ground waters are developed, nearly one-half of this amount being used for irrigation and domestic purposes. Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas have abundant underground supplies extensively drawn upon in certain localities, but capable of much more extensive use. Data are not at hand for estimating the amount withdrawn at present.

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WASTE.

Attention is usually first centered upon the use of ground waters by the development of flowing wells in areas where they may be secured. The advantages of a supply of this type are many. The waters usually cost little, they are protected from contamination, the output is regular, at least until development becomes too intense for the supply, and the quality is constant. But in regions in which flowing waters are used for irrigation and may be procured at shallow depths the resource is often shamelessly wasted. More wells are drilled than are needed and the water is used during but a small portion of the year, but is nevertheless allowed to flow with consequent reduction of head and depletion of supply and often in addition direct damage to the lands upon which it wastes. This waste is not so serious in humid regions in which the loss is quickly replaced by rainfall, but it goes on with equal recklessness in arid and semiarid sections in which the damage is irreparable. This waste is often in direct violation of state statutes, framed especially to prevent it. Where ground waters do not flow out upon the surface but are developed by pumping, waste does not take place, since the cost of production regulates automatically the amount of water withdrawn. Irrigation practice under these conditions is always superior, as the water user, paying for each gallon that he applies to his land, reduces this amount to the lowest effective quantity in order to save cost. Hence almost invariably better results are obtained with a lower duty in districts where irrigation water must be pumped than in those in which it flows.

In the humid regions ground waters—almost everywhere available—are particularly useful as sources of farm, domestic, and municipal supplies and for certain industrial purposes. They are especially beneficial and of particularly good quality in the coastal plain of the Atlantic and Gulf States and in the glaciated regions where the mantle of drift or of unconsolidated sediments forms a reservoir of great capacity, whose supply is rapidly renewed when drawn upon because of the abundant rainfall. Outside the coastal plain and the drift-covered areas conditions are variable, but generally they are inferior to those in the regions named, because the soil mantle over the rocks is often thin and irregularly distributed and in addition is frequently clayey and of small holding capacity. Within either of these regions there may occur synclinal basins of porous rock like the St. Peter sandstone and associated beds in Minnesota or the Dakota sandstone in the Great Plains, both of which form most important reservoirs. Usually, also, the fractured upper surface of whatever rock lies immediately below the soil carries a supply that may be drawn upon by town and farm wells.

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IMPORTANCE.

The importance of these supplies in humid regions to the dwellers there is illustrated by Mr. Frank Leverett's careful determination of the fact that 75 per cent of the population in Michigan are directly dependent for water upon the underground supply, and since the constancy of the lakes and the flow of the streams upon which the remaining 25 per cent depend is also related to the ground waters, the importance of these is really greater than the given percentage indicates. A recent investigation of 19 counties in north-central Indiana again indicates the vital relation that ground water bears to daily life. Of 54 communities in these 19 counties having public supplies, 45 use wells alone and 3 others use both streams and wells. The urban population is therefore largely dependent upon the subsurface supplies and the rural population depends almost entirely upon them. It is estimated that in Florida 750,000,000 gallons of ground waters are used daily for town and country domestic supplies, while an additional 11,500,000 gallons are used by the cities and 500,000,000 gallons for the irrigation of tobacco, citrus fruits, and vegetables. One-half of the irrigation and the greater part of the city supplies in southern California, amounting to more than 300,000,000 gallons daily, are drawn from the sands and gravels that underlie the valleys, while in central California a smaller but nevertheless important draft is made upon the same source.

These available facts, selected from widely scattered localities, indicate clearly that in addition to the almost universal dependence of the rural population upon underground waters for culinary and domestic purposes, an important and growing use is made of them for irrigation and for town supplies. It is probable that it would be safe to apply percentages but slightly less than that determined in the State of Michigan to the entire United States, and to state that nearly 75 per cent of our population depends directly upon underground waters.

RELATION TO STREAM FLOW.

The indirect dependence of mankind upon ground waters is difficult to determine. The greater part of the low-water flow of those of our streams that have no large lakes, swamps, or glaciers in their drainage basins is sustained by the slow escape from soil and rock and vegetable mulch of water that is stored there during rains and the melting of snow. An amount equivalent to the low-water flow is also contributed of course during high-water periods, so that only that part of the annual run-off of ordinary streams that is represented by the excess of flood flow over low-water flow is discharged directly from the surface, without joining the body of the percolating waters.

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The remainder, for a longer or shorter part of its journey from the clouds to the sea, has been stored underground and the rate of its seaward passage thereby notably checked. The greater the proportion of precipitation within a drainage basin that joins the underflow, therefore, the more regular the streams of that basin. Areas of little or no underground storage are areas of violent floods and extreme droughts, while areas with a large proportion of underground storage are areas of slight floods and large and well-sustained low-water flow. Hence as a national policy all should be done that can be done to increase underground storage.

The factors that affect it favorably or adversely are many, and too few of them are within the control of man. Hence those that he can control should be used to the best possible advantage. Among these controlling factors are the character of the precipitation, the topography, including the steepness of slopes and of stream channels, the geology—that is, the character of the rocks and the soils—and finally the vegetation.

If the precipitation is violent and is concentrated within a short period, much less opportunity is afforded for its absorption than if the rain falls gently for a longer period. Brief violent storms are characteristic of our deserts where destructive floods are followed by long-continued droughts.

The effect of the topographic character of a drainage basin is obvious. There will be relatively little run-off from a perfect plain if the rocks or soil beneath it have absorptive capacity. In a region of steep slopes and stream channels of high gradient, on the contrary, water does not stand, and a comparatively slight precipitation will be followed promptly by a notable run-off, unless other favorable factors serve to prevent it.

The influence exerted by geology is also a powerful one. The type of rock, the presence and depth or the absence of soils derived from it, and the existence of a mantle of glacial drift often make the difference between a region well supplied with ground waters and drained by streams of regular flow and a region without ground waters and with most erratic and uncontrollable streams. Loose sandstones absorb water like sponges, to yield it slowly at some lower point, perhaps in a distant drainage basin. Cavernous limestones may offer tortuous underground passages through which water escapes slowly; the loose heaps of glacial débris permit but little surface escape, so thoroughly do they absorb the water that falls upon them. The deep mantle of decayed rock that covers many of our Southern States is equally effective in this respect. Polished glacial surfaces, on the contrary, such as exist in parts of the Sierra, shed water as effectively and promptly as a roof. Dense slates, fresh

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and unfractured granites, or close-grained metamorphic rocks absorb little or no water and contribute practically nothing to the underground supply.

Finally, the various cover growths are of the utmost importance in modifying absorption and run-off. Trees, brush, grasses, and growing crops act in many ways to this end. Everywhere the roots, penetrating the soil and decaying there, leave little channels for the circulation of the water; on mountain slopes and rocky areas they hold loose fragments of rock by their binding root systems and prevent them from being washed away so soon. The crevices about the rock fragments which are thus held become little storage reservoirs. The trees aid in making these crevices by the prying action of their roots and by the disintegrating action of the vegetable acids that are yielded by their decay. The various growths build up a porous absorptive soil by the litter which they shed and the rock sand which becomes enmeshed in their roots, and they protect the soil which thus accumulates and prevent it being swept away. Finally, they interfere directly with run-off by the obstacles which their roots, stems, and fallen leaves and branches offer to the flow of water over the surface. In all of these functions the immediate escape of rains as sudden floods is checked and their absorption, to be slowly released later, is encouraged. It is because of the full recognition of this part that forests play in the conservation of ground waters and the regulation of run-off that engineers and geologists who have made a special study of ground-water supplies and their relation to surface waters are such earnest advocates of the conservation and extension of forest cover.

LIMITATIONS AND METHODS.

Something has been said of the wide extent of ground waters, of their enormous aggregate volume, of the direct dependence of man upon them, of their critical relation to the more obvious stream flow, and of the growing recognition of their latent value and industrial possibilities. A word should be added as to the danger of exaggerating their utility or their practical quantity in some places and the complex problems involved in their utilization.

They are ultimately dependent upon rainfall. Therefore, like surface waters, they are less abundant in arid than in humid regions, and when used there they will be less rapidly renewed. But because of the greater need more attention is paid to them in the dry than in the wet States; they are more vigorously developed there and there is more danger that they may be overdrawn.

Many gravel-filled valleys west of the Rocky Mountains contain both surface and underground waters, not enough of either alone to irrigate all of the tillable lands, but when both are used together

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much more valuable than when either is used alone. Often power can be developed upon surface streams and this power applied to the recovery of the earth waters that saturate the lower valley lands. This mountain water coming down to the lands from above is made to lift the underground water to the lands from below—a most admirable combination and one excellently illustrated in the case of the Santa Ana River in southern California.

A part of the water of this river is stored in a reservoir in the San Bernardino Mountains and the flow of the stream thereby regulated. After it escapes from the reservoir it is diverted through a power plant and electric power is generated. Below the first power plant it is rediverted and passed through a second power plant. Below this it is all distributed and used for municipal and irrigation purposes about Redlands and Highlands. The waters that return from the irrigation are recovered in springs and flowing wells and by pumping plants, a portion of the power developed higher up on the stream being used for the latter purpose. This recovered water is used for irrigation about San Bernardino and Riverside. A part of it reappears in the river above Riverside Narrows, where it is again taken out into a power ditch whose waters are returned to the river above Corona. A few miles below it is picked up by canals and distributed to the orange and deciduous groves about Anaheim and Santa Ana. The portion of it that returns there, by irrigation, to the ground water is once more recovered by the many pumping plants and flowing wells west of Santa Ana in the lower coastal plain.

A single drop of water in its progress from the mountains to the sea, a distance of only 100 miles, may thus be used as many as eight times for power and irrigation. This is an almost ideal use of water. The combination of power development and the recovery of underground waters to supplement the surface flow results in a minimum of waste and a maximum of economy. Development of this type is being rapidly extended now over parts of the West and will receive still further extension in the future.

But care must always be taken not to tax too severely the underground basins from which the water is drawn. They are not by any means inexhaustible. When rainfall is light, the quantity of water returned to the reservoirs each year may be small, although the quantity stored there is large. However large it may be, if more is withdrawn each year than is replaced, there will be gradual lowering of the ground-water level and ultimate disaster. Therefore, users of ground waters in arid regions must study carefully the effects of development in order to be sure that they are not prospering during the present at the expense of disaster in the future. Furthermore, in many sections where water is badly needed ground waters do not

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exist. Residents of such sections, urged on by their need, do not always realize this, and attempts that are hopeless from the beginning are made to procure them. Each field is a particular problem with its own solution. General rules have only a limited application.

RELATIONS TO OTHER RESOURCES AND TO CONSERVATION.

Ground waters and surface waters are, of course, intimately related. All usable ground waters were first surface waters, although perhaps only momentarily, and the greater part of them eventually become surface waters again after their journey underground is completed. It is thus that they sustain stream flow during dry periods and so are closely related to power development and to irrigation, both of which are much more successful with a sustained and regular than with an erratic run-off.

Practically all vegetable life depends upon the existence of ground water. It sustains our crops and our forests and is in turn protected by them through functions already outlined. Seventy-five per cent of our population depends directly upon it, and an important additional percentage indirectly. It is used in irrigation, in industry, in transportation, in all the many activities of life. But, being one of the resources that is constantly renewed by natural processes, we need only exercise reasonable care in our use of it to have it to draw upon perpetually. There are districts in the United States, fortunately few in number and small in area, where the ground waters are being extracted faster than they are renewed. There are other areas in which they are being contaminated and rendered useless or harmful by the careless discharge of industrial waste or sewage or brines from deep wells. There are still other areas in which, through the stripping of the natural cover growths, the annual accessions to the supply are materially reduced. These conditions must be met and remedied; then nature, through her annual rainfall, will repair the harm, as yet slight, that has been done.

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DENUDATION.

By R. B. Dole and H. Stabler.

INTRODUCTION.

The accompanying tables present estimates of the rate of denudation in the United States. The figures show the rate at which the earth's crust is being moved as solid particles carried in suspension by streams and as matter carried in aqueous solution. The first table is a summary of the estimated denudation for the whole United States and for the primary drainage basins; the other tables contain detailed estimates for smaller areas. The map indicates graphically the rates of denudation in different parts of the country.

SOURCES OF DATA.

The computations of denudation factors are based on figures representing the amount of mineral matter carried by streams, the size of the areas tributary to the streams, and the quantity of water discharged by the streams. The run-off data are derived principally from measurements made by the water-resources branch of the United States Geological Survey; some of the measurements, especially in lower Mississippi Valley and on the Great Lakes, were made by the Engineer Corps, U. S. Army; the Weather Bureau, Department of Agriculture, has contributed series of gage heights in several streams; and estimates of run-off based on the best available information have been made for areas regarding which no measurements are at hand. The estimates of the size of the drainage basins are either copied from printed reports or measured from the best available maps. The greater part of the chemical data are derived from complete mineral analyses of river waters, about 5,000 in all, performed for the water-resources branch under the direction of R. B. Dole by W. M. Barr, F. W. Bushong, C. K. Calvert, W. D. Collins, F. M. Eaton, J. R. Evans, P. L. McCreary, Chase Palmer, J. L. Porter, M. G. Roberts, F. C. Robinson, Walton Van Winkle, and A. J. Weith. Daily samples of water were collected for one year from about 150 rivers and lakes in California and in the States east of the one hundredth meridian. Ten consecutive samples were

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then united and the composites thus obtained were subjected to complete mineral analysis. The information regarding dissolved and suspended matter in the streams of the arid States, except California, has been furnished by the United States Reclamation Service from work done under the direction of W. H. Heileman, but unfortunately the detailed analyses could not be procured and therefore the comparative accuracy of the estimates is unknown. In the California and the Reclamation Service work 50 cubic centimeters of filtered and 50 cubic centimeters of unfiltered sample were evaporated, dried at 110° C., and weighed to determine suspended and dissolved solids. In the other analyses the suspended matter in 500 cubic centimeters of the sample was removed by filtration through a Gooch crucible, dried at 180° C., and weighed for suspended solids; the filtrate was then evaporated, dried at 180° C., and weighed for dissolved solids. Some error is introduced by comparing solids determined at 180° with solids determined at 110°. The size of the error varies with the amount of organic matter and water of crystallization present and with the character of the solids themselves, and is probably variable for different rivers and for the same river from time to time; consequently no correction for it has been made. In most cases, however, this circumstance introduces less than 10 per cent error.

The figures for Kennebec River are computed from analyses by G. C. Whipple and E. C. Levy. The dissolved solids for Connecticut River and for Housatonic River are from reports of the Connecticut state board of health; for Merrimac River, from reports of the Massachusetts state board of health; for Blackstone River, from reports of the Rhode Island state board of health. The data for Hudson River at Albany, N. Y.; Potomac River at Great Falls, Md.; and Allegheny River at Pittsburg, Pa., are from reports of water-supply investigations at those places. The figures for Colorado River at Yuma, Ariz., are computed from analyses by R. H. Forbes and from others made in continuation of his work by the Reclamation Service. The data for Ohio River at Louisville, Ky., and at Cincinnati, Ohio, are quoted from reports by G. W. Fuller. The data at West Alton and at Jefferson Barracks, Mo., are quoted from analyses by A. W. Palmer in connection with the case of the State of Missouri against the State of Illinois and the sanitary district of Chicago. The estimates of suspended and dissolved solids at New Orleans, La., are computed from fifteen years' sediment determinations by the Engineer Corps, U. S. Army, and from five years' determinations by the New Orleans water and sewerage board. In all the quoted analyses the estimates are given by weight and not by volume, and in nearly all cases they show the average condition of the water for one or more years.

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METHODS OF COMPUTATION.

The estimates of denudation, computed from the above-mentioned data by H. Stabler, indicate the removal in solution and suspension of solids from the primary and secondary drainage basins of the United States as classified by the Geological Survey. The determinations on which the computations are based are given in detail. The eleven primary basins are designated by Roman numerals. Under the secondary basins, which are designated by Arabic figures, important tributaries and the sampling stations are indicated.

The second, third, fourth, and fifth columns of the tables give, respectively, the areas of the basins, the dissolved solids, the suspended solids, and the annual run-off per square mile. In columns 6 and 7 the annual denudation in tons per square mile for the areas above the points at which samples were collected is computed by multiplying together solids in parts per 1,000,000, run-off in second-feet per square mile, and 0.985; in all other regions the denudation is estimated from the data for known areas. Columns 8 and 9 show the total denudation in thousands of tons per year, computed for the secondary areas by multiplying denudation in tons per square mile per year by the drainage area in thousands of square miles.

The depth in millionths of an inch per year covered by the material removed is found by dividing the tons per square mile per year by 0.1917 and the last three columns bear reciprocal relations to columns 10, 11, and their sum. Any attempt to estimate erosion in volumetric terms from determinations of dry suspended matter and dissolved solids involves the use of factors which are by no means absolute. The actual specific gravity of the mineral substance carried in streams in the United States is not greatly different from 2.6. This figure is practically identical with that commonly assumed for the specific gravity of the earth's crust and corresponds to a weight of 165 pounds per cubic foot. Each 165 pounds of substance found in water, therefore, represents the erosion of approximately 1 cubic foot of the crust of the earth, and estimates of ultimate rock losses based upon these figures are probably not in error more than 8 or 10 per cent. Common earth or loam, however, contains a large amount of air space, or voids, and dry earth is estimated as weighing 80 to 110 pounds per cubic foot. If an estimate of erosion be made upon this basis the error for a large area will probably not be great, but may amount to 20 per cent or more when calculations are made for small areas. Finally a third factor for calculation is based upon an attempt to determine the volume of river sediment or mud banks that a given weight of suspended matter may form. Investigators working upon different streams in the United States have obtained results indicating that a cubic foot of sediment

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may be produced by 50 to 125 pounds of dry material. The compactness of the mud is so variable that an estimate of this nature based upon an average of 90 pounds per cubic foot is likely to be in error by about 45 per cent. In view of the widely divergent values given for river sediment and for surface loam, the estimates for denudation expressed in millionths of an inch in depth from the entire drainage area and in years required for the erosion of 1 inch from the drainage area are based upon the assumption that 165 pounds of suspended or dissolved solids represent the removal of 1 cubic foot of the earth's crust. The factor 0.1917 has been computed on that basis. For the convenience of those who prefer a different basis of calculation, the following table of ratios is presented. The figures given in this report for denudation in inches can be recomputed by dividing them by the ratio corresponding to the weight given in column 1.

Ratios for recomputing denudation in inches.

Weight of material per cubic foot.	Corresponding specific gravity.	Ratio.
Pounds.		
165	2.64	1.00
150	2.40	.91
140	2.24	.85
130	2.08	.79
120	1.92	.73
110	1.76	.67
100	1.60	.61
90	1.44	.55
80	1.28	.49
70	1.12	.42
60	.96	.36
50	.80	.30

The estimates for the primary basins and for the whole United States are based upon the estimates for the secondary areas.

PROBABLE ACCURACY.

The majority of the figures for run-off per square mile per year are based upon discharge measurements extending over periods of seven years or more and are, with a few exceptions, within 10 per cent of the true average values. The drainage areas in square miles are so nearly correct that their errors are negligible in these calculations. The estimates of dissolved solids represent the average condition of the water for a period of one year or more. By comparison of annual averages for several streams in different years it has been estimated that the average for one year is generally not over 10 per cent from the correct average value, and it is undoubtedly true that the average total solids does not vary from year to year nearly so much as the

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average run-off. On the other hand, suspended solids are subject to greater variation than run-off. Floods are always attended by extreme rises in suspended solids, and the amount of suspended matter is subject to enormous variation from place to place on account of changes in stream velocity, the character of the river bed, and other features. In consequence of these facts, it is possible that denudation estimates, based on average suspended matter for one year, may be in error as much as 50 per cent. When all these facts are considered in conjunction with the distance of the sampling stations from the mouths of the rivers, it may be estimated that the calculated figures for denudation are generally within 20 per cent of the true values. Only two significant figures, therefore, have been retained in the last five columns. In many streams of the arid and semiarid regions the yearly fluctuations in run-off are very great and the mineralization of the waters is very high, so that estimates of denudation in that part of the country are not so reliable as similar estimates for eastern rivers. As the analytical data for the northern Pacific, Hudson Bay, and western Gulf of Mexico basins are extremely meager, the estimated denudations for those areas may be more than 20 per cent in error, and further investigations in those regions must be made before reliable values can be calculated.

DISCUSSION OF SUMMARY.

The summary presents in tabular form denudation estimates for the primary drainage basins and for the whole United States. The figures for dissolved solids practically represent material carried into the ocean; the figures for suspended solids, on the other hand, represent more properly material carried to tide water, because the decrease in stream velocity at that point occasions a gradual deposition of the matter transported in solid form. The tons per square mile per year removed from different basins show interesting comparisons. In respect to dissolved matter, the southern Pacific basin heads the list with 177 tons, the northern Atlantic basin being next with 130 tons. The rate for Hudson Bay basin, 28 tons, is lowest; that for the Colorado and western Gulf of Mexico basins is somewhat higher. The denudation estimates for the southern Atlantic basin correspond very closely to those for the entire United States. The amounts are generally lowest for streams in the arid and semiarid regions, because large areas there contribute little or nothing to the run-off. The southern Pacific basin is an important exception to this general rule, presumably because of the extensive practice of irrigation in that area. The amounts are highest in regions of high rainfall, though usually the waters in those sections are not so highly mineralized as the waters of streams in arid regions.

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Colorado River brings down the most suspended matter, delivering 387 tons per year for each square mile of its drainage basin. Though many small streams bring silt into the Great Lakes, sedimentation clears the water, and practically no suspended matter is transported by St. Lawrence River. In general much less suspended matter is carried by northern than by southern rivers, a phenomenon influenced probably more by the texture of the soil and the subsoil and the geologic character of the rocks than by stream velocity.

The detailed estimates throw considerable light upon the progress of erosion in different sections of the river valleys. The Mississippi, for instance, apparently discharges more material than is brought in by its tributaries, thus indicating that its lower valley is still being eroded. The lower Colorado, however, appears to be receiving deposits from both dissolved and suspended matter taken from its upland drainage area. The Rio Grande is similar to the Colorado in this respect.

The estimates reveal that the surface of the United States is being removed at the rate of thirteen ten-thousandths of an inch per year, or 1 inch in 760 years. Though this amount seems trivial when spread over the surface of the country, it becomes stupendous when considered as a total, for over 270,000,000 tons of dissolved matter and 513,000,000 tons of suspended matter are transported to tide water every year by the streams of the United States. This total of 783,000,000 tons represents more than 350,000,000 cubic yards of rock substance, or 610,000,000 cubic yards of surface soil. If this erosive action had been concentrated upon the Isthmus of Panama at the time of American occupation, it would have excavated the prism for an 85-foot level canal in about seventy-three days.

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Summary.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation.								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Total.
I. Northern Atlantic	159,400				130	39	20,800	6,100	680	200	1,500	5,000	1,100
II. Southern Atlantic	123,900				94	176	11,700	21,800	490	920	2,000	1,100	710
III. Eastern Gulf of Mexico	142,100				117	144	16,600	20,400	580	750	1,700	1,300	750
IV. Western Gulf of Mexico	315,700				36	72	11,400	22,700	190	380	5,300	2,700	1,800
V. Mississippi River	1,265,000				108	269	136,400	340,500	560	1,400	1,800	710	500
VI. Laurentian Basin	175,000				116	1	20,400	180	600	5	1,700	200,000	1,610
VII. Colorado River	230,000				51	387	11,700	89,000	270	2,000	3,800	500	440
VIII. Southern Pacific	72,700				177	75	12,800	5,500	920	390	1,100	2,600	760
IX. Northern Pacific	270,000				100	20	27,000	5,400	520	100	1,900	9,600	1,600
X. Great Basin	223,000				90	50	20,100	11,200	470	260	2,100	3,800	1,400
XI. Hudson Bay	62,000				28	21	1,700	1,300	150	110	6,800	9,100	3,900
Total	3,048,800						290,600	524,080					
The United States	3,088,500				94	170	290,600	524,080	490	890	2,040	1,130	730
The United States (Great Basin denudation being taken as zero)	3,088,500				87	166	270,500	512,880	460	870	2,190	1,150	760

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Detailed estimates.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation.								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dissolved.	Suspended.		Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Total.
I. Northern Atlantic	159,400				130	69	20,795	6,147	680	200	1,500	5,000	1,100
1. St. Johns (in United States)	7,500			1.76	85	7	638	53	440	37	2,300	27,000	2,100
2. St. Croix (in United States)	1,100			2.51	100	8	110	9	520	42	1,900	24,000	1,800
3. Penobscot	8,500			1.96	90	8	765	68	470	42	2,100	24,000	2,000
4. Kennebec	5,970			1.84	85	7	508	42	440	37	2,300	27,000	2,100
Waterville, Me.	4,270	48	4.0	1.76	83	7.3							
5. Androscoggin	3,500			2.14	100	8	350	28	520	42	1,900	24,000	1,800
Brunswick, Me.	3,500	48		2.14	101								
6. Presumpscot	600			1.68	85	7	51	4	440	37	2,300	27,000	2,100
7. Saco	1,720			2.36	100	8	172	14	520	42	1,900	24,000	2,100
8. Merrimac	5,020			1.62	65	7	326	35	340	37	3,000	27,000	2,700
Lawrence, Mass.	4,550	41		1.58	64								
9. Connecticut	11,100			1.99	90	8	999	89	470	42	2,100	24,000	2,000
Goodspeeds, Conn.	10,900	45		1.99	88								
10. Blackstone	460				125	7	58	3	650	37	1,500	27,000	1,500
Valley Falls, R. I.	440	74		1.71	125								
11. Thames	1,450				125	7	181	10	650	37	1,500	27,000	1,500
12. Housatonic	1,980			2.17	195	8	386	16	1,000	42	980	24,000	940
Gaylordsville, Conn.	1,020		4.0	2.15		8.5							
Derby, Conn.	1,920	92		2.15	195								
13. Hudson	13,400			1.90	190	30	2,544	402	990	160	1,000	6,400	870
Albany, N. Y.	8,800	107	17.0	1.80	189	30							
Hudson, N. Y.	9,530	108	16.0	1.82	193	29							
Mechanicsville, N. Y.	4,500			1.81									
Dunsback Ferry (Mohawk River)	3,440			1.73									
14. Passaic	950			2.17	180	75	171	71	940	390	1,100	2,600	750
15. Raritan	1,110			2.15	180	75	200	83	940	390	1,100	2,600	750
Bound Brook, N. J.	800	85	36.0	2.14	179	76							
16. Delaware	13,100			1.97	150	55	1,964	721	780	290	1,300	3,500	940
Lambertville, N. J.	6,860	70	26.0	2.19	151	56							
17. Susquehanna	27,400			1.56	165	35	4,520	960	860	180	1,200	5,500	960
Danville, Pa.	11,070	112	21.0	1.71	188	35							
Williamsport, Pa.	5,640	74	18.0	1.68	123	30							
18. Potomac	14,300			1.21	125	95	1,787	1,358	650	500	1,500	2,000	870
Piedmont, W. Va.	410			1.70									

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Detailed estimates—Continued.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation.								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Total.
I. Northern Atlantic—Continued.													
18. Potomac—Continued.													
Cumberland, Md.	620	130	29.0	1.70	217	49							
Millville, W. Va. (Shenandoah River)	3,000	140	39.0	1.07	147	41							
Point of Rocks, Md.	9,650			1.07									
Great Falls, Md.	11,400	115	85.0	1.12	127	94							
19. James	10,400			1.35	115	95	1,195	988	600	500	1,700	2,000	900
Cartersville, Va.	6,230			1.33									
Richmond, Va.	6,820	89	71.0	1.33	117	93							
20. Minor Chesapeake Bay	12,800			1.59	130	40	3,870	1,193	680	210	1,500	4,800	1,100
21. Minor North Atlantic	17,000			2.18									
II. Southern Atlantic	123,900				94	176	11,688	21,775	490	920	2,000	1,100	710
1. Chowan	5,000			1.40	85	80	425	400	440	420	2,300	2,400	1,200
2. Roanoke	9,750			1.25	101	256	984	2,490	530	1,300	1,900	750	540
South Boston, Va. (Dan River)	2,750	71	264.0	1.34	94	348							
Randolph, Va.	3,080	79	127.0	1.39	108	174							
3. Tar	4,360			1.26	85	80	371	349	440	420	2,300	2,400	1,200
4. Neuse	5,550			1.32	86	80	477	444	450	420	2,200	2,400	1,200
Raleigh, N. C.	1,000	73	68.0	1.19	86	80							
Selma, N. C.	1,170			1.19									
5. Cape Fear	9,030			1.23	69	25	623	226	360	130	2,800	7,700	2,000
Wilmington, N. C.	9,030	57	21.0	1.23	69	25							
6. Pedee (Yadkin)	10,600			1.60	113	154	1,198	1,630	590	800	1,700	1,200	720
Salisbury, N. C.	3,400			1.69									
Pee Dee, N. C.	6,100	69	94.0	1.66	113	154							
7. Santee	14,800			1.66	107	233	1,583	3,445	560	1,200	1,800	820	560
Camden, S. C. (Wateree River)	4,500	73	214.0	1.44	104	303							
Waterloo, S. C. (Saluda River)	1,060			1.85									
Columbia, S. C. (Saluda River)	2,350	62	54.0	1.85	113	98							
8. Savannah	11,100			1.58	98	232	1,088	2,575	510	1,200	2,000	830	580
Augusta, Ga.	7,300	60	142.0	1.66	98	232							

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9. Ogeechee	5,140			1.27	90	225	463	1,156	470	1,200	2,100	850	610
10. Altamaha	14,100			1.26	85	215	1,198	3,030	440	1,100	2,300	890	640
Macon, Ga. (Ocmulgee River)	2,420	69	174.0	1.31	86	224							
Dublin, Ga. (Oconee River)	4,180	68	171.0	1.24	83	209							
11. Minor South Atlantic	34,500				95	175	3,278	6,030	500	910	2,000	1,100	710
III. Eastern Gulf of Mexico	142,100				117	144	16,610	20,430	580	750	1,700	1,300	750
1. Suwanee	9,970			1.50	100	150	997	1,500	520	780	1,900	1,300	770
2. Apalachicola	18,800			1.61	103	159	1,936	2,988	540	830	1,900	1,200	730
Albany, Ga. (Flint River)	5,000	67	58.0	1.56	103	89							
West Point, Ga. (Chattahoochee River)	3,300	52	136.0	1.98	102	265							
3. Mobile	42,100			1.57	129	151	5,190	6,350	670	790	1,500	1,300	680
Selma, Ala. (Alabama River)	15,400	82	100.0	1.81	146	178							
Epes, Ala. (Tombigbee River)	8,830	94	100.0	1.06	98	104							
4. Pearl	8,650			1.42	75	58	649	502	390	300	2,600	3,300	1,400
Jackson, Miss.	3,120	59	46.0	1.29	75	58							
5. Minor Eastern Gulf	62,700			1.50	125	145	7,838	9,090	650	760	1,500	1,300	710
IV. Western Gulf of Mexico	315,700				36	72	11,370	22,740	190	380	5,300	2,700	1,800
1. Brazos	48,800			.200									
Waco, Tex.	32,300	1,136	1,188.0	.082	92	96	2,970	3,100					
2. Colorado (of Texas)	39,000			.097	24	26							
Austin, Tex.	35,000	321	351.0	.075	24	26	878	952					
3. Rio Grande	248,000			.032									
United States area	130,000				25	78	3,250	10,140					
El Paso, Tex.	38,600	700	14,140.0	.030	21	418							
Laredo, Tex. (United States area)	123,000	791	2,475.0	.032	25	78							
Pecos River	56,000				90	60							
Dayton, N. Mex.	16,300	2,988	2,150.0	.032	94	68							
Carlsbad, N. Mex.	19,800	2,680	331.0	.035	92	11							
V. Mississippi River:													
1. Main stream—													
Minneapolis, Minn.	19,600	200	7.9	.810	159	6.3	3,120	124	830	33	1,200	30,000	1,200
Quincy, Ill.	135,500	203	119.0	.538	108	63							
Jefferson Barracks, Mo.	700,700	206	964.0	.263	53	250							
Menard, Ill.	711,900	209	634.0	.263	70	164							
Memphis, Tenn.	941,000	202	519.0	.546	109	279							
New Orleans, La.	1,261,000	190	600.0										
At mouth	1,265,000			.560	105	331							
2. Minor lower eastern—													
Tributaries	29,000				80	60	2,320	1,740	420	310	2,400	3,200	1,400
3. Ohio River	214,000				190	200	40,600	42,750	990	1,000	1,000	960	490
Tennessee River	39,000				159	200							
Chattanooga, Tenn.	21,400			1.71									
Gilbertsville, Ky.	38,400	101	127.0	1.60	159	200							
Cumberland River	18,600				171	227							
Kuttawa, Ky.	18,200	124	165.0	1.40	171	227							

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Detailed estimates—Continued.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation.								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Total.
V. Mississippi River—Continued.													
3. Ohio River—Continued.													
Green River	8,580				165	225							
Kentucky River	7,870				164	220							
Frankfort, Ky	5,140	104	142.0	1.60	164	223							
Licking River	3,300				160	220							
Big Sandy River	4,000				160	200							
Kanawha River	11,000				160	180							
Monongahela River	7,620				217	203							
Elizabeth, Pa	5,580	81	84.0	1.80	143	149							
McKeesport, Pa. (Youghiogheny River)	1,770	197	163.0	2.30	446	369							
Allegheny River	11,100				160	60							
Kittanning, Pa	8,690	87	30.0	1.62	139	48							
Brilliant, Pa	11,000	116	48.0		185	77							
Beaver River	3,100				180	65							
Muskingum River	7,740				232	67							
Zanesville, Ohio	5,830	244	70.0	.966	232	67							
Scioto River	6,400				220	68							
Great Miami River	5,400				210	68							
Dayton, Ohio	2,450	289	94.0	.737	210	68							
Wabash River	33,030				249	86							
Terre Haute, Ind	12,200			.737									
Vincennes, Ind	12,720	336	193.0		244	140							
White River	10,800				290	38							
Indianapolis, Ind. (West Fork)	1,520	450	38.0	.792	351	30							
Azalia, Ind. (East Fork)	2,100	279	48.0	.900	247	43							
Shoals, Ind. (East Fork)	4,900			.924									
Embarass River	2,450				212	49							
Lawrenceville, Ill	2,390	283	66.0	.76	212	49							
Little Wabash River	2,600				133	52							
Carmi, Ill	2,500	176	68.0	.77	133	52							
Minor tributaries	56,800												
Main stream:													
Wheeling, W. Va	23,800			1.72									

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Cincinnati, Ohio	72,400	120	230.0	1.60	189	363							
Louisville Ky	85,000	150	350.0	1.50	221	517							
4. Big Muddy River	2,370				170	98	400	230	890	510	1,100	2,000	720
Murphysboro, Ill	2,250	225	129.0	.77	170	98							
5. Kaskaskia River	5,880				180	92	1,060	540	940	480	1,100	2,100	700
Carlyle, Ill	2,720	248	126.0	.74	180	92							
6. Illinois River	27,900				218	118	6,090	3,290	1,100	620	880	1,600	570
Kampsville, Ill	26,730	267	145.0	.83	218	118							
7. Rock River	10,970				200	180	2,190	1,970	1,000	940	960	1,100	500
Rockton, Ill	6,150			.773									
Rock Falls, Ill	8,640	267	236.0		203	179							
8. Wisconsin River	12,280				140	7	1,720	86	730	37	1,400	27,000	1,300
Necedah, Wis	5,800			1.45									
Portage, Wis	8,600	98	4.6		140	6.6							
9. Chippewa River	9,570				116	5	1,110	48	600	26	1,700	38,000	1,600
Eau Claire, Wis	6,740	90	3.7	1.31	116	4.7							
10. St. Croix River	7,660				120	5	920	38	630	26	1,600	38,000	1,500
11. Minor upper:													
Eastern tributaries	10,000				180	90	1,800	900	940	470	1,100	2,100	710
12. Minnesota River	16,100				89	26	1,420	418	460	140	2,200	7,400	1,700
Mankato, Minn	13,400			0.186									
Shakopee, Minn	15,100	480	142.0		88	26							
13. Wapsipinicon River	2,570				145	50	370	128	760	260	1,300	3,800	980
14. Iowa River	12,400				145	50	1,800	620	760	260	1,300	3,800	980
Iowa City, Iowa	3,320	247	120.0	.573	139	68							
Cedar Rapids, Iowa (Cedar River)	6,320	228	61.0	.656	147	39							
15. Des Moines River	14,700				169	349	2,480	5,130	880	1,800	1,100	550	370
Keosauqua, Iowa	14,300	312	642.0	.551	169	349							
16. Missouri River	528,000				50	290	26,400	153,100	260	1,500	3,800	660	560
Florence, Nebr	323,000	454	2,059.0	.154	69	312							
Omaha, Nebr	323,000			.154									
Kansas City, Mo	430,000	426	2,032.0	.143	60	286							
Ruegg, Mo	528,000	346	1,890.0	.157	53	292							
West Alton, Mo	528,000	294	1,138.0	.157	45	176							
Milk River	26,700												
Havre, Mont	7,300	712	1,331.0	.035	25	46							
Yellowstone River	69,700												
Glendive, Mont	66,090	375	853.0	.188	70	158							
Platte River	83,800												
Fremont, Nebr	71,400	302	392.0		39	51							
Columbus, Nebr	70,400			.132									
Kansas River	61,400												
Lecompton, Kans	58,600			.191									
Holliday, Kans	61,100	383	612.0		72	115							
17. Arkansas River	189,000				120	140	22,700	26,450	630	730	1,600	1,400	740
Arkansas City, Kans	44,500	1,284	1,736.0	.045	57	77							
Little Rock, Ark	158,000	630	748.0	.197	122	145							
18. Red River	90,000				160	240	14,400	21,600	840	1,300	1,200	800	480
Shreveport, La	56,900	561	870.0	.285	157	244							
19. Minor western tributaries	63,000				145	50	9,140	3,150	760	260	1,300	3,800	980

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Detailed estimates—Continued.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.		Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Dis-solved.	Sus-pended.	Total.
V. Mississippi River—Continued.													
Cumulative summary:													
1. Above Quincy, Ill.:													
Mississippi at Minneapolis, Minn	19,600				159	6.3	3,120	124	830	33	1,200	30,000	1,200
Minnesota River	16,100				88	26	1,420	418	460	140	2,200	7,400	1,700
Wapsipinicon River	2,570				145	50	370	128	760	260	1,300	3,800	980
Iowa River	12,400				145	50	1,800	620	760	260	1,300	3,800	980
Des Moines River	14,700				169	349	2,480	5,130	880	1,800	1,100	550	370
St. Croix River	7,660				120	5	920	38	630	26	1,600	38,000	1,500
Chippewa River	9,570				116	5	1,110	48	600	26	1,700	38,000	1,600
Wisconsin River	12,280				140	7	1,720	86	730	37	1,400	27,000	1,300
Rock River	10,970				200	180	2,190	1,970	1,000	940	960	1,100	500
Minor streams	29,650				157	63	4,660	1,880	820	330	1,200	3,000	870
Mississippi at Quincy, Ill.	135,500												
Estimated from tributaries					146	77	19,790	10,442	760	400	1,300	2,500	800
Actually determined					108	63	14,640	8,540	560	330	1,800	3,000	1,100
Average					127	65	12,215	9,491	660	340	1,500	3,000	1,000
2. Above Menard, Ill.:													
Mississippi at Quincy, Ill	135,500				146	77	19,790	10,442	760	400	1,300	2,500	800
Illinois River	27,900				218	118	6,080	3,290	1,100	620	880	1,600	570
Missouri River	528,000				50	290	26,400	153,100	260	1,500	3,800	600	500
Kaskaskia River	5,880				180	92	1,060	540	940	480	1,100	2,100	700
Minor streams	14,620				145	50	2,120	731	760	260	1,300	3,800	900
Mississippi at Menard, Ill.	711,900												
Estimated from tributaries					78	236	55,450	168,103	410	1,200	2,500	810	610
Actually determined					70	164	49,850	116,700	360	860	2,700	1,200	820
Average					74	200	52,650	142,402	390	1,000	2,600	900	700

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3. Above Memphis, Tenn.:													
Mississippi at Menard, Ill.	711,900				78	236	55,450	168,103	410	1,200	2,500	810	610
Big Muddy River	2,370				170	98	400	230	890	510	1,100	2,000	720
Ohio River	214,000				190	200	40,600	42,750	990	1,000	1,000	960	490
Minor streams	12,730				145	50	1,840	636	760	260	1,300	3,800	980
Mississippi at Memphis, Tenn	941,000												
Estimated from tributaries					104	225	98,290	211,719	540	1,200	1,800	850	580
Actually determined					109	279	102,500	262,400	570	1,500	1,800	690	490
Average					106	252	100,395	237,060	550	1,300	1,800	760	540
4. Mouth of river:													
Mississippi at Memphis, Tenn	941,000				104	225	98,290	211,719	540	1,200	1,800	850	580
Arkansas River	189,000				120	140	22,700	26,450	630	730	1,600	1,400	740
Red River	90,000				160	240	14,400	21,600	840	1,300	1,200	800	480
Minor streams	45,000				103	56	4,640	2,540	540	290	1,900	3,400	1,200
At mouth	1,265,000												
Estimated from tributaries					111	208	140,030	262,309	580	1,100	1,700	920	600
Determined from analyses at New Orleans					105	331	132,820	418,720	550	1,700	1,800	580	440
Average					108	269	136,425	340,514	560	1,400	1,800	710	510
VI. Laurentian Basin: [a]													
United States area	175,000				116	1	20,360	181	600	5	1,700	200,000	1,000
1. Lake Superior	76,100			1.02	60	1							
United States area	48,600				69	1	2,920	49	310	5	3,200	200,000	3,100
Saulte Ste. Marie, Mich.	76,100	60	Trace.										
2. Lakes Michigan-Huron	137,800			.874									
United States area	71,300				126	.8	8,950	59	660	4	1,500	250,000	1,500
3. Lakes Superior-Michigan-Huron	213,900			.924	99	.9							
United States area	119,900				99	.9	11,870	108	520	5	1,900	200,000	1,900
Chicago, Ill. (drainage canal)	213,900	130	Trace.	.022	3	.0							
Port Huron, Mich. (St. Clair River)	213,900	108	Trace.	.902	96	.9							
4. Lake Erie	40,800			.539									
United States area	23,400				184	.5	4,310	11	960	3	1,000	330,000	1,000
5. Lakes Superior-Michigan-Huron-Erie	254,700			.863	113	.8							
United States area	143,300				113	.8	16,180	119	590	4	1,700	250,000	1,700
Chicago, Ill. (drainage canal)	254,700	130	Trace.	.018	2.3	.0							
Buffalo, N. Y. (Niagara River and New York canals)	254,700	133	Trace.	.845	111	.8							

[a] Figures are based upon assumption that unit denudation above Ogdensburg is the same for the United States and Canada.

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Detailed estimates—Continued.

Drainage basin.	Physical and chemical data.				Estimated denudation.								
	Area (square miles).	Solids (parts per million).		Run-off (second-feet per square mile).	Tons of solids per square mile per year.		Thousand tons of solids per year.		Millionths of an inch per year.		Years required for 1 inch.		
		Dissolved.	Suspended.		Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Dissolved.	Suspended.	Total.
VI. Laurentian Basin—Continued.													
6. Lake Ontario	33,000			1.04									
United States area	18,000				144	1	2,600	18	750	5	1,300	200,000	1,300
7. Lakes Superior-Michigan-Huron-Erie-Ontario	287,700			.884	116	.9							
United States area	161,300				116	.9	18,780	137	600	5	1,700	200,000	1,600
Chicago, Ill. (drainage canal)	287,700	130	Trace.	.016	2.1	.0							
Buffalo, N. Y. (New York canals)	287,700	133	Trace.	.008	1.1	.0							
Ogdensburg, N. Y. (St. Lawrence River)	287,700	134	Trace.	.859	113	.9							
8. St. Lawrence River (below Ogdensburg, N. Y.)—													
United States area	13,660				116	3.2	1,580	44	600	17	1,700	59,000	1,600
Oswegatchie River—													
Ogdensburg, N. Y	1,580	77	10.0	1.72	130	17							
Lake Champlain	7,900	66	Trace.		113	1.7							
Rouses Point, N. Y	7,750			1.74									
VII. Colorado River:													
United States area	230,000				51	387	11,730	89,010	270	2,000	3,800	500	440
Yuma, Ariz	225,000	710	5,354.0	.0733	51	387							
1. Gila	71,100				80	[a] 225	5,690	16,000	420	1,200	2,400	860	630
Salt River	13,000				150	235							
Roosevelt, Ariz	5,760	646	1,300.0	.238	151	304							
McDowell, Ariz. (Verde River)	6,000	362	1,137.0	.141	50	158							
Mesa, Ariz	12,260	1,090	1,274.0	.189	203	237							
Gila River					13	210							
San Carlos, Ariz	13,500	811	4,682.0	.015	12	60							
Florence, Ariz	17,850	944	14,130.0	.015	14	209							
2. Little Colorado	31,000				11	134	340	4,150	57	700	18,000	1,400	1,300
Woodruff, Ariz	6,000	602	7,149.0	.019	11	134							
3. Grand	26,200				198	470	5,190	12,310	1,000	2,400	970	410	[a] 290
Palisades, Colo	8,550	[a] 429	[b] 1,358.0	.546	230	730							
Whitewater, Colo. (Gunnison River)	7,870	484	553.0	.350	167	190							

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4. Green	41,000				90	165	3,690	6,700	470	800	2,100	1,200	750
Jensen, Utah	26,600	369	679.0	.247	90	165							
VIII. Southern Pacific	72,700				177	75	12,850	5,460	920	390	1,100	2,600	760
1. Minor Southern Pacific	22,800			.325	196	71	4,470	1,620	1,000	370	980	2,700	720
Soledad, Cal. (Arroyo Seco)	215	284	33.0	.793	222	26							
Santa Maria, Cal. (Santa Maria River)	1,000	2,412	1,302.0		204	110							
Santa Barbara, Cal. (Santa Ynez River)	207	714	64.0	.495	248	31							
Calabasas, Cal. (Malibu Creek)	97	717	61.0	.375	265	23							
Mentone, Cal. (Santa Ana River)	182	139	53.0	.409	56	21							
Pala, Cal. (San Luis Rey)	318	321	142.0	.352	111	49							
2. San Francisco Bay	49,900				168	77	8,380	3,840	880	400	1,100	2,500	780
Sacramento River	31,400			1.45	172	86							
Sacramento, Cal	29,500	121	60.0	1.45	172	86							
San Joaquin River [c]	16,500			1.02	162	60							
Lathrop, Cal	12,500	161	60.0	1.02	162	60							
IX. Northern Pacific	[d] 270,000				100	20	27,000	5,400	520	100	1,900	9,600	1,600
X. Great Basin	[d] 223,000				90	50	20,070	11,150	470	260	2,100	3,800	1,400
XI. Hudson Bay (in United States)	62,000				28	21	1,740	1,300	150	110	6,800	9,100	3,900
Red River of the North—													
Total area in United States	50,000				28	21	1,400	1,050	150	110	6,800	9,100	3,900
Grand Forks, N. Dak	25,000	[e] 200	[e] 150.0	.141	28	21							

[a] Suspended matter probably far too low.
[b] Analyses cover only portion of year. Results appear too high for an average.
[c] Excluding Tulare Lake.
[d] Analytical data extremely meager.
[e] Estimated from four analyses.

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CONTROL OF CATCHMENT AREAS.

By Horatio N. Parker.

Catchment areas, annual consumption, and total money investment of the water works of 42 cities which derive their water supplies from impounded surface waters and which have populations of over 30,000.

City.	Catchment area.	Reservoir capacity.	Annual consumption.	Total investment: Cost of construction.	Total investment: Bonded indebtedness.	Total investment: Miscellaneous
	Sq. miles.	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*			
Altoona, Pa	9.00	[a] 425,000,000	547,500,000	$910,148	$479,000	[illegible]
Baltimore, Md	347.00	2,310,000,000	22,995,000,000	12,000,000	850,000	[illegible]
Boston, Mass	[b] 212.38	82,966,530,000	40,250,000,000	40,459,778	40,500,000	[illegible]
Bridgeport, Conn	40.80	10,000,000,000	7,300,000,000	.....	.....	.....
Brockton, Mass	7.70	5,700,000,000	714,340,000	1,713,300	1,485,000	[illegible]
Butte, Mont	.....	290,000,000	2,190,000,000	.....	.....	.....
Cambridge, Mass	6.80	2,270,000,000	3,386,180,000	6,467,153	3,787,600	[illegible]
Charleston, S. C	49.00	3,127,820,000	1,204,500,000	2,456,682	1,250,000	[illegible]
Denver, Colo	3,910.00	110,000,000,000	15,881,000,000	.....	.....	.....
Elmira, N. Y	.....	117,500,000	1,546,900,000	895,000	.....	[illegible]
Fall River, Mass	27.54	.....	1,640,000,000	2,076,450	1,550,000	[illegible]
Fitchburg, Mass	7.40	2,000,000	1,095,000,000	1,400,000	446,000	[illegible]
Hartford, Conn	13.00	2,035,000,000	2,190,000,000	3,567,191	675,000	[illegible]
Haverhill, Mass	20.10	128,000,000	1,839,000,000	1,463,047	610,833	[illegible]
Holyoke, Mass	18.05	1,600,000,000	2,127,840,000	1,295,308	350,000	[illegible]
Jersey City, N. J	.....	129,200,000	12,045,000,000	5,200,000	600,000	[illegible]
Johnstown, Pa	5.50	283,000,000	.....	1,500,000	.....	.....
Los Angeles, Cal	502.50	898,000,000	11,680,000,000	[c] 3,983,693	[illegible]	[illegible]
Lynn, Mass	.....	.....	1,873,450,000	2,900,891	1,778,500	[illegible]
Newark, N. J	.....	9,000,000,000	93,482,500,000	8,959,790	7,993,500	[illegible]
New Bedford, Mass	[e] 12.80	[f] 5,550,000,000	2,524,661,000	3,332,800	1,638,000	[illegible]
New Haven, Conn	56.40	2,837,000,000	8,395,000,000	.....	.....	.....
New York, N. Y. (boroughs of Manhattan and Bronx)	[g] 382.00	[h] 108,638,000,000	[h] 119,720,000,000	[i] 86,359,562	.....	[illegible]
Norfolk, Va	.....	.....	2,482,000,000	1,250,000	.....	.....
Oakland, Cal	.....	6,300,000,000	.....	4,520,000	.....	[illegible]
Pawtucket, R. I	27.80	1,475,600,000	2,633,000,000	1,946,848	1,285,000	[illegible]
Portland, Me	.....	30,000,000	2,190,000,000	2,677,970	.....	.....
Portland, Oreg	.....	6,000,000	6,935,000,000	5,204,650	2,900,000	[illegible]
Reading, Pa	218.60	186,022,000	3,768,260,000	33,213,725	400,000	[illegible]
Rochester, N. Y	[j] 66.20	229,500,000	5,621,000,000	9,028,000	5,610,000	[illegible]
St. Paul, Minn	.....	18,000,000	3,732,000,000	4,517,229	2,367,000	[illegible]
Salem, Mass	.....	20,000,000	1,090,426,000	1,947,200	143,000	[illegible]
Salt Lake City, Utah	.....	9,012,000	5,110,000,000	4,810,000	1,575,000	[illegible]
San Francisco, Cal. (prior to fire)	.....	29,000,000,000	12,344,665,000	.....	.....	[illegible]
Scranton, Pa	.....	2,000,000,000	9,125,000,000	.....	.....	.....
Springfield, Mass	[k] 18.00	1,500,000,000	4,000,000,000	2,509,526	555,000	[illegible]
Syracuse, N. Y	70.25	121,000,000	4,380,000,000	5,000,000	4,075,000	[illegible]
Taunton, Mass	52.00	10,300,000,000	818,774,000	1,367,801	853,500	[illegible]
Waterbury, Conn	19.50	920,000,000	2,728,831,000	1,819,640	865,000	[illegible]
Wilkesbarre, Pa	.....	4,000,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
Worcester, Mass	.....	2,550,000,000	2,954,617,000	4,406,202	3,830,000	[illegible]

[a] Exclusive of a reservoir of 300,000,000 gallons capacity.
[b] Metropolitan Water Works.
[c] Amount spent since the works were taken over by the city in February, 1902.
[d] Original, 4,017,500.
[e] Exclusive of a storage reservoir in Acushnet, which has a catchment area of 5.25 square miles.
[f] An additional storage reservoir of 1,600,000,000 gallons capacity is under construction.
[g] On Croton, Bronx, and Byram rivers.
[h] On Croton River, including the new Croton reservoir to be finished in 1911, and on Bronx and Byram rivers.
[i] 1832 to 1898, inclusive.
[j] Exclusive of Hemlock Lake.
[k] Little River supply, now 40 per cent completed, is to replace present supply; will have a catchment area of 48 square miles and storage capacity of 2,600,000,000 gallons.

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INDEX.

A. Page.

Acknowledgments to those aiding.... 5, 48, 78–79
Alabama River, floods on 19, 22
Allegheny River, floods on..... 14, 21–22
Arctic Ocean drainage. *See* Hudson Bay.
Atlantic States, denudation in 84–87
water-power development in..... 32–33, 35–37
water powers in..... 51, 52–53
Augusta, Ga., floods at 18, 22

B.

Bien, Morris, water code proposed by..... 63–67

C.

California, ground-water irrigation in. 70, 71, 73, 76
water laws of..... 62
water-power development in.. 30, 31, 33, 44, 45
Camden, S. C., floods at 17, 22
Catchment areas of city supplies, data on.. 94
Census, water-power statistics by 28–29
City supplies, catchment areas of 94
Climate, effect of, on stream flow 11
Colorado River, silt of..... 83
Colorado River States, denudation in... 84, 92–93
water-power development in..... 33–34, 43
water powers in 51, 56, 58
Confluence, Pa., floods at..... 16, 22
Connecticut River, floods on..... 20, 22

D.

Denudation, rate of, computation of..... 80–81
rate of, computation of, accuracy of... 81–82
data on, sources of..... 78–79
discussion of..... 78–93
total of 83
Dale, R. B., and Stabler, H., on denudation. 78–93
Drainage, artificial, effect of, on stream flow. 11

F.

Floods, damages due to 24–25
damages due to, prevention of..... 27
discussion of..... 10–27
increase in 10–11
waters of, storage of..... 26–27
Florida, ground-water development in.. 70, 71, 73
Forests, flood storage by..... 26
removal of, soil injury due to 21
relation of, to floods..... 12, 21–24
Freeport, Pa., floods at..... 14, 22

G.

Gannett, Henry, on distribution of rainfall. 7–9
Geology, relation of, to ground water 74–75

Page.

Great Basin States, denudation in..... 84, 93
water-power development in..... 33–34, 45
water powers in 51, 57, 58
Great Plains, ground-water development on. 71
Ground. *See* Soil.
Gulf States, denudation in 84, 87
water-power development in..... 32–33, 37–38
water powers in 51, 58, 58

H.

Holyoke River, floods on..... 20, 22
Hudson Bay drainage States, denudation in. 83–84
water-power development in..... 33–34, 45
water powers in 51, 57, 58

I.

Idaho, water laws of 63
Interstate waters, regulation of 67
Irrigation, acreage under 59
acreage under, distribution of..... 61
maximum of..... 61
ground water for 71
laws concerning..... 59, 62–63
proposed code of 63–67
possibilities of, paper on..... 59–67
projects for 60

L.

Laurentian basin. *See* St. Lawrence River.
Leighton, M. O., on floods 10–27
on water powers, developed..... 28–45
on water powers, undeveloped..... 46–58
Levees, construction of..... 27

M.

Maine, water-power development in..... 30, 31, 32, 33, 35
Maps, showing rainfall..... 7, 8
showing rainfall, preparation of 9
Mendenhall, W. C., on underground waters. 68–77
Michigan, ground-water development in .. 73
Minnesota, flood storage in 26
Mississippi River States, denudation in.. 84, 87–91
water-power development in 32–33, 39–42
water powers in 51, 54–55, 58
Monongahela River, floods on 15, 21–22
Municipal supplies, catchment areas for... 94

N.

National Conservation Commission, report of..... 5
Nebraska, water laws of..... 63

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Page.
Nevada, water laws of 63
Newell, F. H., on irrigation possibilities ... 59-67
New England, flood storage in 26
New York, flood storage in 26
water-power development in 30, 31, 32, 34, 35, 43
North Atlantic States, denudation in 84-86
water-power development in 32-33, 35-36
water powers in 51-52, 58
North Pacific States, denudation in 84, 93
water-power development in 33-34, 44
water powers in 51, 57, 58

O.

Ohio River, floods on 13, 21-22
Oregon, water laws of 63, 66-67

P.

Pacific States, denudation in 84-93
water-power development in 33-34, 44
water powers in 51, 56-57
Parker, H. N., on control of catchment areas 94
Precipitation. *See* Rainfall.

R.

Railroads, flood damage to 24-25
Rainfall, causes of 8-9
distribution of 7-9
relation of, to floods 10-12, 22-23
to ground water 74
to seasons, plate showing 8
sources of 9
Rainfall map of United States 7
preparation of 9
Reclamation, increase in, by storage 27
Reservoir sites, reservation of 62
Riparian rights, abrogation of 62

S.

St. Lawrence River drainage States, denudation in 84, 91-92
water-power development in 33-34, 43
water powers in 51, 56, 58
Savannah River, floods on 18, 22
Sediments, amount of. *See* Denudation.
Selma, Ala., floods at 19, 22
Silt, amount of 83
Soil, absorption by, relation of floods and .. 10-12
flood storage in 26
South Atlantic States, denudation in 84, 86-87
water-power development in 32-33, 37
water powers in 51, 53, 58
South Pacific States, denudation in 84, 93
water-power development in 33-34, 44
water powers in 51, 56, 58
Stabler, H., and Dole, R. B., on denudation 78-93
Steuart, W. M., statistics by, of developed water powers 28-45

Page.
Storage, artificial, duration of 50
effect of, on stream flow 11
increase in 26
irrigation increase by 27
water-power increase by 27, 49
Stream flow, estimates of 51
relation of, to ground water 73-75
sediment carried by. *See* Denudation.
Tennessee River, floods on 22-24
Topography, effect of, on stream flow 11
on underground water 74

U.

Utah, water laws of 67

V.

Vegetation, relation of, to stream flow .. 11, 12, 21
relation of, to underground water 75, 77

W.

Washington, water laws of 63
Water, laws concerning 62-63
laws concerning, proposed code of 63-67
multiple use of 76
Water, underground, depletion of 70, 75, 76-77
determination of 69
development of 68-77
importance of 73, 77
limits of 75-77
pollution of 77
quantity of 69-70
in use 70-71
relation of, to rainfall 74, 75
to stream flow 73-75, 77
ruin of 77
source of 68
use of, for irrigation 71
waste of 72
Water power, increase in 27
Water powers, developed, capacity of 30, 31
distribution of 31
discussion of 28-45
estimate of 29
Water powers, undeveloped, amount of 49-58
character of 47
data on, sources of 46-47
discussion of 46-58
determination of 47-48, 68-69
increase in, by storage 47
relation of, to fuel exhaustion 47
Wateree River, floods on 17, 22
Wells, flowing, waste from 72
Wheel capacity, estimates of 29
installations of, economic amount of ... 49
variations in 29-30
Wheeling, W. Va., floods at 13, 21-22
Wyoming, water laws of 63

Y.

Youghiogheny River, floods on 16, 21-22

O

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
GEORGE OTIS SMITH, DIRECTOR

WATER-SUPPLY PAPER 235

THE PURIFICATION OF SOME TEXTILE AND OTHER FACTORY WASTES

BY

HERMAN STABLER AND GILBERT H. PRATT

PREPARED IN COOPERATION WITH RHODE ISLAND STATE BOARD OF HEALTH

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1909

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	5
Scope of paper	5
Acknowledgments	5
Wool scouring	6
Necessity for treatment	6
Processes of scouring	6
Scouring with soap, alkali, and water	6
Steeping and scouring	7
Scouring with volatile solvents	8
Waste waters from scouring wool	8
Classification	8
Steep water	8
Treatment	8
Results	9
Costs and values	10
Production of ferrocyanide	11
Sewage from scouring after steeping	12
Sewage from washing after treatment with volatile solvents	12
Sewage from rinsing after scouring	13
Sewage from scouring with soap and alkali	13
Purification of wool-scouring liquor	14
Sewage-treatment methods	14
Purification by recovery	17
Cracking process	17
Turner-Akeroyd process	20
Battage process	21
Smith-Leach process	21
Economy of treatment	24
Summary	26
Bleaching and dyeing cotton yarn	27
Bleaching processes and waste waters	27
Gray boil	27
Bleaching	27
Wastes	28
Dyeing processes and waste waters	29
Wet-out process	29
Dyeing	30
Wastes	30
Purification of waste waters	32
Previous investigations	32
Laboratory experiments	33

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Bleaching and dyeing cotton yarn—Continued.
Purification of waste waters—Continued.
Experiments at Pawtucket, R. I.
Character of wastes
Sand filters
Effluents
Effect on sand in filters
Cost of treatment
Summary
Bleaching cotton piece goods
Bleaching processes and waste waters
Purification of waste bleaching liquors
In England
In Massachusetts
Treatment of lime-boil and caustic-boil liquors
Laboratory experiments
Experiments at Saylesville, R. I.
Description of purification plant
Operation of storage tank
Operation of septic tank
Operation of filters
Results of experimental work
Estimates of cost
Summary
The manufacture of oleomargarine, fertilizer, and glue
Processes and waste waters
Experimental purification of wastes
Operation of purification plant
Results of filtration
Costs of filtration
Evaporation—recovery treatment of wastes
Value of recovered product
Cost of treatment
Conclusions
Index

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E PURIFICATION OF SOME TEXTILE AND OTHER FACTORY WASTES.

By Herman Stabler and Gilbert H. Pratt.

INTRODUCTION.

Scope of paper.—This paper gives a brief outline of the processes scouring wool, bleaching cotton yarn and cloth, dyeing cotton yarn, ıd manufacturing oleomargarine, glue, and fertilizer. The waste ıters of these processes are considered in detail and means of puri-ing them are discussed at length, special prominence being given to ıe investigations of the authors. These investigations, which were egun in pursuance of an agreement for eleven months' cooperative ork entered into August 1, 1906, between the United States Geo-ogical Survey and the Rhode Island state board of health, consisted f the determination of the effects of special industrial wastes on treams, their persistence, their relation to health, their damage to ıatural water resources, and the best methods of disposing of them, urifying them, or recovering valuable materials contained in them. The effect of the wastes on streams and the resulting damage to water esources has been detailed in another publication.[a]

The cooperative work was conducted under the joint supervision of M. O. Leighton, chief hydrographer of the United States Geological Survey, and Dr. Gardner T. Swarts, secretary of the Rhode Island state board of health, and the expense was shared equally by the organizations represented. The investigation of processes, the general field work, and a part of the laboratory experiments and analyses were conducted by Herman Stabler, assistant engineer, United States Geological Survey. The general laboratory work was conducted by Gilbert H. Pratt, chemist, Rhode Island state board of health. After the close of the cooperative work on June 30, 1907, the purification experiments were continued for several months by the state board of health, and the operation of an experimental purification plant that had been established and the installation and operation of other plants fell under Mr. Pratt's direction.

Acknowledgments.—Information as to processes, free access to factories, assistance in installing and maintaining experimental purification plants, and many other courtesies were extended by the manu-

[a] Stabler, Herman, Pollution of the Moshassuck * * * rivers: Spec. Rept. Rhode Island State Board of Health, 1908.

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facturers affected by these investigations. The hearty cooperation thus received is acknowledged with thanks. A partial list of those who contributed to the research in this manner is as follows: Messrs. A. A. Sack, J. R. MacColl, F. A. Sayles, K. F. Wood, H. F. Schwarz, F. R. Mason, W. J. Burton, J. P. Farnsworth, F. R. Ames, H. G. McKerrow, S. Turner, and William Hartshorne.

Special acknowledgment is due Dr. Gardner T. Swarts for his personal interest in the investigations and for his active assistance in procuring the cooperation of manufacturing interests.

Free use has been made of the technical literature on the subjects treated. Where specific facts have been taken from such sources due credit is given, but the report also contains material gleaned from a perusal of the history of previous investigations, for which entire credit can not rightly be given to any one author.

WOOL SCOURING.

NECESSITY FOR TREATMENT.

Raw wool, as it comes from the sheep, is heavily impregnated with fatty matter, potassium salts, sand, and miscellaneous organic and inorganic materials. These impurities are derived partly from exudations from the skin of the animal and partly from outside sources, such as the soil over which the sheep moves. As it comes to the textile factory, therefore, wool may contain only from 20 to 80 per cent of fiber from which yarn may be produced. The separation of these impurities from the fiber is one of the most important processes of manufacture. The separation must be practically complete or all subsequent processes will suffer, for imperfectly scoured wool resists the action of mordants and takes a streaky color in dyeing, causes the fabric to become stiff and hard, and otherwise interferes with the production of high-class textiles. The scouring processes depend for their success on the use of softening and solvent agents which bring into solution some of the impurities and loosen others from the fiber so that they may readily be removed.

PROCESSES OF SCOURING.

SCOURING WITH SOAP, ALKALI, AND WATER.

The agents most commonly used for scouring wool are soap, alkali, and water. The operation is usually conducted in a series of three long, shallow iron tanks. These are nearly filled with water, to which soap and alkali are added in desired amounts. The wool is then fed continuously into the first tank, through which it is slowly carried by an ingenious system of moving rakes. Having reached the end of the first tank, the wool passes between rolls, which extract the moisture from it, and it falls into the second tank. Passage through the second and third tanks is accomplished in a similar manner.

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The wool emerging from the third tank is practically free from impurities and is ready to be dried, oiled, and subjected to further manufacturing processes. As more and more wool passes through the scouring machine, the liquid in the tanks becomes very foul and the operation finally has to be discontinued. The scouring liquor is discharged from the first tank into the sewer, the liquor in the second tank is discharged into the first, the liquor in the third tank is discharged into the second, and the third tank is filled anew with clean water and other cleaning agents. In this way the waste liquors are highly concentrated, and water, soap, and alkali are used in an economical manner. Potassium soaps and potash are usually employed, because the sodium compounds, though less expensive, have an energetic corrosive action on the fiber, destroy its natural mellowness, and impart to it a yellow tinge. The potassium compounds, on the other hand, tend to whiten the wool and to give it a softened, diffusive character. Olive-oil soaps are most frequently used. The water is maintained during scouring at a temperature between 32° C. (90° F.) and 60° C. (140° F.). The higher temperatures are conducive to better cleansing, but they have a tendency to injure the wool.

For each thousand gallons of water, 40 to 45 pounds of soft soap and 5 to 10 pounds of potash are generally used in scouring from 1,000 to 2,000 pounds of raw wool to produce 600 to 900 pounds of clean wool fiber. These figures are, of course, only approximations; some scourers prefer a large amount of soap and no alkali, and others use very little soap and large quantities of alkali. At some mills the wool, after having been scoured, is rinsed in a running stream of fresh water.

STEEPING AND SCOURING.

As the impurities of wool include potash and wool fat, two valuable substances, special methods of cleansing have been adopted in order to facilitate the recovery of one or both of them from the scouring liquor. Steeping in tepid water as a preliminary to scouring is a procedure much followed in Europe, but little used in this country. The steeping, as usually practiced, is in reality an extractive process, for successive portions of water are passed through the wool, softening the impurities and removing the matters soluble in water. The steep water contains, in consequence, a large amount of potash.

After having been steeped, the wool is scoured as previously described. Although the steeping removes from the wool its natural content of the valuable scouring agent, potash, it renders scouring less costly, for it softens the impurities so that they may easily be removed from the fiber. This results in a saving of time and soap in scouring. The recovery of potash from steep water is another advantage derived from this procedure.

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SCOURING WITH VOLATILE SOLVENTS.

Methods of scouring with volatile solvents have been devised in great numbers. The solvents proposed are petroleum-naphtha, carbon disulphide, and carbon tetrachloride. Because of the danger in the use of highly inflammable solvents and the expense entailed by loss of solvent, few of the patented processes have proved to be successful. Some of them, however, provide such perfect control of the solvent that its escape is negligible, and excessive cost and danger of fire have been obviated. Unfortunately these processes are jealously guarded for the exclusive use of the owners, so that their benefits are not open to textile interests generally.

In volatile solvent processes the raw wool is placed in suitable containers, the solvent is passed through it again and again until all the grease is extracted, and the solvent is removed from the wool and container by means of an inert gas. The solvent is recovered from the grease for subsequent use by distillation, and a valuable wool-fat product is left. After treatment with the solvent, the wool can be completely cleansed by warm water alone in the usual forms of scouring apparatus. It is claimed for such processes that the recovered wool fat is sufficiently valuable to pay for the extraction process. The gain in their use is measured partly by the saving in soap in the subsequent scouring process, but the greatest economy is said to be a saving in wool. It is claimed that the net yield of clean wool is far in excess of that obtained from the processes of scouring with soap.

WASTE WATERS FROM SCOURING WOOL.

CLASSIFICATION.

The waste waters from scouring wool vary in composition according to the methods of scouring and according to the differences of practice when the same general methods of scouring are employed. The wastes may be classified as follows: Steep water; sewage from scouring with soap and alkali after steeping; sewage from washing after treatment with volatile solvents; sewage from scouring with soap and alkali, and rinse water after scouring with soap and alkali.

STEEP WATER.

Treatment.—Steeping before scouring is practiced generally in France and Belgium and to a less extent in Germany, Russia, and England, but the method is almost unknown in the United States. As its object is the recovery of the potash in the wool, the steep water is used repeatedly until it becomes highly concentrated before the recovery processes are begun. Although there is considerable difference in practice at individual works, the average amount of liquor is approximately 1,000 gallons for 5,000 pounds of wool treated. The

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steep water contains about 20 per cent of the weight of the wool treated, or about 40 per cent of the impurities in the wool. The constituents are mainly potassium compounds of organic and mineral acids, a small amount of similar sodium compounds, sand, dirt, and organic matter of various kinds. The residue obtained by evaporating the steep water amounts to about 120,000 parts per million (1,000 pounds per 1,000 gallons). About 40 per cent of this amount is organic or volatile matter and about 60 per cent is mineral matter. The alkalinity of the liquor corresponds to about 4,000 parts per million (33 pounds per 1,000 gallons) of potassium carbonate. In the recovery process the potassium compounds of organic acids are converted into potassium carbonate, thus largely increasing the yield of crude potash.

The process of treatment is simple. Usually the liquor, heated by waste furnace gases, is fed into an evaporator of the Porion type, passing first through an evaporating chamber and, after concentration has progressed to a suitable degree, passing into an incinerating chamber or common reverberatory furnace, from which crude potash is removed. The waste heat from the incinerating chamber accomplishes the evaporation. The liquor contains a considerable amount of inflammable matter which, burning in the incinerating chamber, assists the evaporation and reduces the amount of coal required for the process. Obviously the more concentrated the liquors are the more economically they can be utilized for the production of potassium salts.

Results.—Table 1 gives analyses of the potash obtained from the foregoing process:

TABLE 1.—*Analyses of potash recovered from wool-steep liquor.*

[Per cent of crude potash.]

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
Silica (SiO_2)	.....	6.2	6.0	1.4	0.1	.....	.....
Iron oxide (Fe_2O_3)	.....	.....	.....	Trace.	Trace.	.....	.....
Calcium (Ca)	.....	.....	.....	1.7	1.6	.....	.....
Magnesium (Mg)	.....	.....	.....	.6	.5	.....	.....
Sodium (Na)	2.0	1.4	1.3	2.0	Trace.	.....	2
Potassium (K)	48.8	48.5	48.4	49.0	52.7	53.6	48
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	36.7	31.5	29.7	35.2	34.5	37.7	35
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	1.7	1.2	1.3	3.8	3.8	1.5	3
Chlorine (Cl)	2.9	5.9	8.0	4.3	3.8	3.0	3
Phosphate radicle (PO_4)	.....	.....	.....	.9	.9	.....	.....
Insoluble matter	4.9	1.5	1.6	.....	.....	4.2	5
Water	.....	2.8	2.8	.....	.....	.....	3
Organic matter and undetermined, etc	3.0	1.0	.9	2.5	2.1	.....	1
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100

1. Analysis of potash from Doehren establishment. Analyst unknown. Wagner, Rudolf von, Manual of chemical technology; transl. by Sir William Crookes from the 13th German ed. of Dr. Ferdinand Fischer, 1904, p. 298.
2, 3. Analyses by Wérotte, Verviers, 1873. Wagner, Rudolf von. loc. cit.
4, 5. Analyses by Marcker and Schulz. Naylor, W., Trades waste; its treatment and utilization, 1902, p. 83.
6. Analysis by Maumené and Rogelet. Naylor, W., loc. cit.
7. Analysis of potash from a plant using the Richard-Lagerie apparatus. Analyst unknown. Naylor, W., op. cit., p. 85.

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The content of potassium is nearly uniform in all the analyses, and it is approximately 50 per cent of the crude potash. In Table 1 the analyses have been calculated in ionic form for purposes of comparison. Table 2 contains a statement of the soluble salts as given by the analysts.

TABLE 2.—*Saline composition of potash recovered from wool-steep liquor.*

[Per cent of crude potash.]

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	Mean.
Potassium carbonate (K_2CO_3)	78.5	68.5	64.3	86.8	75	74.6
Potassium sulphate (K_2SO_4)	2.7	2.1	2.5	2.8	6	3.2
Potassium chloride (KCl)	5.7	12.5	16.9	6.2	6	9.5
Potassium silicate (K_2SiO_3)	.....	8.5	8.0	.....	.....	8.2
Sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3)	4.6	3.2	3.1	.....	4	3.7

Potash in this crude form is worth from 3 to 4 cents a pound. It may be purified by extraction and crystallization, treatment that yields fairly pure carbonates, sulphates, and chlorides of potassium. A notable application of this procedure is found at the establishment of W. Graff at Lesum, where the pure salts were manufactured from the crude potash from six wool-scouring plants in 1878. According to Flekkel,[a] simple extraction and calcination of crude potash obtained from steep water gives a product which is 85 per cent pure potassium carbonate and is the purest commercial form known.

Costs and values.—A rough estimation of costs and values in this process may not be out of place. Naylor[b] quotes a statement placing the coal consumption for evaporating and incinerating at 1 pound for each pound of crude potash produced when a steep liquor of specific gravity 1.072 (10° Baumé, or 14.4° Twaddell) is treated. Fischer[c] estimates that 1 pound of Westphalian coal (analysis—carbon, 76.11; hydrogen, 4.52; sulphur, 1.19; oxygen and nitrogen, 10.06; ash, 8.12 per cent) is sufficient to evaporate and to calcine 12 pounds of steep liquor of specific gravity 1.069 (9.6° Baumé, or 13.8° Twaddell) and that the product is about 0.9 pound of crude potash. According to these estimates, evaporation and calcination would require about 745 pounds of coal per 1,000 gallons of steep liquor. If the preliminary concentration were conducted in a triple-effect vacuum avaporator, the amount of coal could probably be reduced to 425 pounds, but such a machine is economically adapted only to the concentration of large quantities of liquor. The following is a rough estimate of costs:

[a] Extraction of potash from suint of Russian wool: Bull. Soc. chim., 2d ser., vol. 34, 1880, pp. 332-333.
[b] Naylor, W., Trades waste; its treatment and utilization, 1902, p. 85.
[c] Fischer, F., Utilization of suint from wool: Dinglers polytech. Jour., vol. 229, 1879, pp. 446-449.

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Yearly costs for treating 100 gallons an hour of steep liquor, ten hours a day, three hundred days a year.

Interest, depreciation, and repairs on plant, 15 per cent on investment of $5,000	$750
Labor	750
Coal, 132 tons, at $4 (this estimate allows additional coal for banked fires fourteen hours daily)	528
	2,028

Liberal allowance has been made for all costs. Such a plant would utilize the steep liquor from 5,000 pounds of wool daily, and plants for treating larger quantities of liquor and running twenty-four hours a day could be operated with much greater economy. On the assumption that the foregoing process would recover 84 per cent of the potassium in the wool as potassium carbonate worth 5 cents a pound, and that the remainder is valueless, the receipts would amount to 0.075 cent a pound of wool for each 1 per cent of potassium found by analysis, or 0.05 cent a pound of wool for each 1 per cent of recoverable potassium carbonate. A plant like the one just indicated would, therefore, produce an annual revenue of $1,125 for each 1 per cent of potassium, or $750 for each 1 per cent of potassium carbonate in the wool. In order to pay costs as estimated, this plant would necessarily have to operate on liquor from wool containing 1.8 per cent of potassium or 2.7 per cent of recoverable potassium carbonate. Each additional 0.044 per cent of potassium, or 0.067 per cent of recoverable potassium carbonate, would return a profit of 1 per cent on the investment of $5,000. With the average wool, containing over 4 per cent of recoverable potash, a substantial return on the investment is to be expected.

Production of ferrocyanide.—Another method which has been suggested for utilizing steep water is that of evaporating it to dryness and heating it in a closed retort for the production of potassium ferrocyanide, or yellow prussiate of potash. The residue obtained by evaporation to dryness is an intimate mixture of potassium salts and organic matter, and after the addition of iron filings and nitrogenous waste in proper proportions, it is one of the best mixtures for the production of ferrocyanide. This method was proposed by Havrez [a] in 1870, and it was successfully tried on an experimental scale at the Peltzer works in Verviers. Although it is improbable that the method will come into use at wool-scouring establishments, it indicates a market in the chemical industries for a potash residue which may easily be obtained at such works. It is stated that the value of the residue of steep water, when used in this way, is more than twice its ordinary commercial value.

[a] Havrez, P., Wagner's Jahresbuch, 1870, pp. 210 and 222; Dinglers polytech. Jour., vol. 195, p. 535.

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SEWAGE FROM SCOURING AFTER STEEPING.

As 40 per cent of the impurities of the wool are removed by steeping, the sewage from scouring after steeping contains the remaining 60 per cent of the impurities. This waste differs from ordinary scouring liquor chiefly by reason of the absence of the potassium compounds that are in raw wool. It contains large amounts of organic matter, wool fat, soaps used in scouring, and other substances, and its practical purification can be best effected by the means adopted for ordinary scouring liquor (see pp. 14–17) except those in which the recovery of potash is an important element.

SEWAGE FROM WASHING AFTER TREATMENT WITH VOLATILE SOLVENTS.

Sewage from washing wool after treatment with volatile solvents is closely allied in character to the steep water already considered. It differs from steep water in that it contains a greater percentage of the wool impurities, other than potash, and for this reason it is less valuable for potash recovery. On the other hand, its greater content of organic impurities should give it a greater value than steep water in the production of potassium ferrocyanide. The solids of this liquor consist of about 40 per cent mineral and 60 per cent organic matter. The yearly cost for potash recovery from it would be from $500 to $800 greater than that given on page 11 for recovery from steep water for the same quantity of raw wool, and the quality of crude potash would be much inferior, averaging probably not more than 50 per cent pure potassium carbonate. As a larger quantity of inferior potash would be produced, the economy of the process would be considerably lessened by cost of marketing the product unless the potash were purified on the premises. Furthermore, the greater proportion of suspended matter in this liquor makes economic evaporation difficult.

It would seem that the dried residue after evaporation of such liquor would make an excellent fertilizer stock. Attempts to market it in this way, however, have been unsuccessful.

If mere purification without recovery of potash is desired, this liquor can be successfully treated by slow filtration through sand. From 65 to 85 per cent removal of total organic matter and entire removal of suspended matter was effected at a rate of 12,300 gallons per acre per day by this method at the Lawrence sewage experiment station.[a] Such purification would cost:

Annual cost of daily purification of 2,000 gallons of sewage from washing wool after treatment by volatile solvents.

Interest, repairs, and depreciation, 15 per cent on an investment of $1,500	$225
Labor, one-half of one man's time, at $1.50 a day	225
	450

[a] Thirty-sixth Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board Health, 1904, pp. 276–277.

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Whether this treatment would be less expensive than potash recovery would depend chiefly on the quantity and the potash content of the wool scoured and on the amount of water used in scouring

SEWAGE FROM RINSING AFTER SCOURING.

If the wool is rinsed after scouring with soap and alkali the resulting waste water is usually very dilute and contains no materials of sufficient value to warrant their recovery. Purification by common sewage methods is usually satisfactory. Experiments at Lawrence, Mass.,[a] indicate that if rinse water, which may vary from 5 to 100 gallons for each pound of wool scoured, is mixed with sewage, it can be satisfactorily purified by filtration through sand at high rates. Rates exceeding 500,000 gallons per acre per day were maintained in some of these experiments.

SEWAGE FROM SCOURING WITH SOAP AND ALKALI.

The sewage which results from scouring wool with soap and alkali is the "wool-scouring liquor" commonly encountered in this country. It is an ill-smelling liquor of brownish color, heavily charged with impurities in solution and in suspension. It contains soap, wool fats, and potash in sufficient quantities to form a heavy emulsion, and on this account the liquor is very hard to filter in the laboratory. The analyses in Table 3 show the general composition of the scouring liquor and some of the variations in character likely to be encountered at different mills.

TABLE 3.—*Analyses of wool-scouring liquor.*

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
Specific gravity	1.023	1.027	1.019	.....	.....
Turbidity	22,000	120,000	55,000	.....	.....
Scum ....per cent by volume	.....	8	Slight.	20	.....
Sediment ....do	15	8	20	14	.....
Total solids	45,090	116,400	68,060	70,800	41,700
Volatile	24,670	85,000	50,710	46,600	29,800
Fixed	20,420	31,400	17,350	24,200	11,900
Alkalinity	8,000	8,000	3,100	3,800	3,420
Fats	14,600	59,000	38,200	31,620	20,200
Oxygen consumed	5,680	11,500	5,700	5,200	.....
Nitrogen as free ammonia	300	300	164	180	.....
Organic nitrogen	663	1,550	795	941	.....

1. Liquor from woolen mill of Lymansville Company, Lymansville, R. I., November 13, 1906.
2. Average of three samples, Lorraine Manufacturing Company, Pawtucket, R. I., March 13, 1907.
3. Average for week ending March 29, 1907, Lorraine Manufacturing Company, Pawtucket, R. I.
4. Average for week ending May 23, 1907, Lorraine Manufacturing Company, Pawtucket, R. I.
Analyses 1 to 4 by G. H. Pratt and H. Stabler.
5. Crude suds from Field Head Mills, Bradford, England, May, 1900. Analysis by F. W. Richardson, Bradford public analyst.

[a] Thirty-second Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board Health, 1900, p. 415.

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PURIFICATION OF WOOL-SCOURING LIQUOR.

SEWAGE-TREATMENT METHODS.

The methods of treating wool-scouring liquor in which purification is the sole object include the common processes of sewage purification, namely, sedimentation, precipitation, and filtration.

The Massachusetts state board of health has conducted for several years experiments on the purification of wool-washing wastes by sewage methods, and a summary [a] of five years' work by that body may be given as follows:

1. A considerable amount of suspended matter can be removed by sedimentation. The amount of organic matter deposited can not be materially increased by reasonable amounts of common precipitants alone or in combination. Ferric chloride and lime or lime alone will sometimes precipitate considerable quantities of organic and fatty matter.

2. Acids separate fats, but they give an acid liquor that is hard to treat.

3. Filtration through sand is inexpedient, because the liquor does not nitrify by itself and the filters quickly clog.

4. Scouring liquor mixed with sewage can be purified and nitrified in intermittent sand filters.

5. A higher rate of filtration and less clogging of filters result from holding the mixture of scouring liquor and sewage for bacterial action, including putrefaction, before filtration.

6. Mixtures of scouring liquor and sewage that can be purified in sand filters can not be purified in contact filters.

It is evident from this summary that a high degree of purification can not be obtained by sedimentation, chemical precipitation, or filtration under reasonable conditions of practice.

The results obtained by septic treatment of mixed sewage and wool-scouring liquor for 1900 were very good and are indicated in Table 4, adapted from the report [b] previously mentioned.

TABLE 4.—*Analyses of mixed sewage and wool-scouring liquor before and after purification.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Source of sample.	Color.	Free ammonia.	Albuminoid ammonia.	Nitrogen as nitrates.	Nitrogen as nitrites.	Oxygen consumed.
Mixture of 11 parts sewage and 1 part scouring liquor	.....	36.50	14.30	.....	.....	164.0
Mixture filtered at rate of 47,600 gallons per acre per day, 6 days a week	215	.19	1.68	16.3	.000	28.3
Mixture passed through septic tank and filtered at rate of 46,100 gallons per acre per day, 6 days a week	173	.22	1.44	29.1	.023	22.5

[a] Loc. cit.

[b] Op. cit., p. 416.

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The liquor treated by this method, however, is very different from the wool-scouring liquor represented by the analyses in Table 3. The scouring liquor used in all the Massachusetts experiments was rather dilute, and the successful filtration experiments were made on this dilute liquor still further reduced by eleven times its volume of sewage. It appears that even the best results obtained in these experiments show that the method can not be employed at many wool-scouring establishments. Treatment of wool-scouring liquor by usual sewage methods, therefore, can not be recommended, except in cases where a comparatively small percentage of purification is all that is desired.

The conclusion reached above is corroborated by the results of treatment by sedimentation at Lymansville, R. I. The wastes at the woolen mill of the Lymansville Company are dye water, 3,000 to 4,000 gallons; piece-scouring and rinsing water, 5,000 to 6,000 gallons; and wool-scouring liquor, 5,000 to 6,000 gallons. Piece-scouring suds and dye water, in intermittent flow during the day, are collected in two 9,500-gallon brick cisterns, which are used alternately. At noon and at the end of the day wool-scouring liquor to which has been added slaked lime to the amount of 50 pounds a day, or 1 pound to about 300 gallons of the combined liquors, is admitted. These cisterns serve primarily as receiving and mixing basins, but the mixed liquors are also freed in them from coarse and heavy suspended matters. The cisterns are cleaned once in three weeks, when about 9 cubic yards of sludge are removed. This sludge is dumped near by until excess of water has drained off, and is then carted away. It contains, as shown by analysis of a sample taken from the dump, total solids, 79.7 per cent (volatile solids, 4.5 per cent; fixed solids, 75.2 per cent); fats, 1.4 per cent; and nitrogen, 0.12 per cent. It is chiefly sand, wholly unsuitable for fertilizing purposes, and it probably can not be utilized in any way.

The combined liquors are pumped from the receiving cisterns into the first of a series of four reservoirs. The sizes of these reservoirs and the periods of storage afforded by them are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Waste liquor reservoirs at Lymansville, R. I.*

Reservoir No.	Dimensions.	Capacity.	Storage period.
	Feet.	*Gallons.*	*Days.*
1	45 by 60 by 4	81,000	5.4
2	35 by 18 by 4	18,900	1.3
3	40 by 18 by 4	21,600	1.4
4	45 by 18 by 4	24,300	1.6
	.....	145,800	9.7

The system is practically one of sedimentation, though the effluent from reservoir No. 4 passes through a bank of coarse cinders. The first of the reservoirs is cleaned about once in six months, when 25 cubic yards of scum and an equal amount of sludge are removed. Only slight

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accumulations are found in the other reservoirs. In a year, therefore, 160 cubic yards of material are removed from the wastes in the receiving cisterns, 100 cubic yards in reservoir No. 1, and about 10 cubic yards in the other reservoirs, making a total of 270 cubic yards of material removed from the wool-scouring wastes. The scum from reservoir No. 1 contains 24.1 per cent total solids (15.4 per cent volatile solids, 8.7 per cent fixed solids), 4.8 per cent fat, and 0.4 per cent nitrogen. The sludge contains 29.5 per cent total solids (14.1 per cent volatile solids, 15.4 per cent fixed solids), 4.2 per cent fat, and 0.5 per cent nitrogen. This material undoubtedly has some manurial value, but the great content of moisture (70 to 75 per cent) renders it practically valueless because of cost of transportation or of drying. Correcting for the moisture and assuming an average weight of 80 pounds per cubic foot for the 270 cubic yards of material, it appears that a total removal of 357,000 pounds per annum is accomplished. This is a maximum figure. The waste liquors contain about 1,000,000 pounds of solid matters. A purification of upward of 36 per cent is therefore effected. It should be noted, however, that by far the greater part (about 75 per cent) of this purification takes place in the receiving basins. In Table 6 analyses of the various waste liquors at Lymansville are presented, together with analyses of the combined liquors at different stages in the sedimentation system.

TABLE 6.—*Analyses of waste waters at Lymansville, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

Source of sample.	Turbidity.	Color.	Sediment.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Oxygen consumed.	Fats.
			Per cent.				
Dye water	400	Black	(b)	7	43	364	14
Piece-scouring suds	1,200	Slate	(c)	69	1	560	900
Wool-scouring liquor	22,000	Brown	15	663	300	5,680	14,600
Inflow reservoir No. 1	10,300	do	7.2	215	183	1,700	5,940
Effluent reservoir No. 1	9,700	do	3.0	194	169	1,690	5,430
Effluent reservoir No. 2	9,700	do	2.2	194	143	1,700	4,950
Effluent reservoir No. 3	8,000	do	2.1	188	145	1,680	4,380
Effluent reservoir No. 4	8,500	do	1.3	184	134	1,680	5,070
Final effluent	9,700	do	1.0	190	133	1,700	4,850

Source of sample.	Chlorine.	Alkalinity.	Total solids.		Solids in solution.	
			Total.	Loss on ignition.	Total.	Loss on ignition.
Dye water	5	114	790	690	790	690
Piece-scouring suds	100	1,990	4,610	2,140	3,960	1,510
Wool-scouring liquor	1,100	8,000	45,090	24,670	31,120	13,080
Inflow reservoir No. 1	400	3,560	19,600	12,500	11,080	4,670
Effluent reservoir No. 1	400	3,250	16,530	9,400	11,770	5,000
Effluent reservoir No. 2	400	3,750	16,010	9,140	11,610	5,050
Effluent reservoir No. 3	400	3,750	15,520	8,640	11,240	4,670
Effluent reservoir No. 4	400	3,750	15,730	8,760	11,590	4,920
Final effluent	400	3,750	15,900	8,960	11,360	4,680

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt and H. Stabler. [b] Considerable. [c] Heavy.

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The mixing of the wool-scouring liquor with the other waste waters assists materially in the precipitation of solids; but the reduction in impurities, even under these favorable conditions, is comparatively small. It appears from the figures presented in Table 6 that the entire system of reservoirs, considered aside from the receiving basins, with nearly ten days' storage accomplishes a reduction of only 6 per cent in turbidity, 86 per cent in sediment, 19 per cent in total solids, 28 per cent in loss on ignition, 2 per cent in fixed solids, 12 per cent in organic nitrogen, 27 per cent in free ammonia, 18 per cent in fats, and practically nothing in oxygen consumed or solids after filtration. In the first reservoir alone there is a reduction of 6 per cent in turbidity, 58 per cent in sediment, 16 per cent in total solids, 25 per cent in loss on ignition, nothing in fixed solids, 10 per cent in organic nitrogen, 8 per cent in free ammonia, and 9 per cent in fats. There appears to be little gain in prolonging the period of sedimentation beyond five days. It is even probable that a carefully constructed sedimentation basin with a twenty-four to forty-eight-hour period would accomplish as much purification as the entire system of reservoirs in use at Lymansville, for it should be understood that these reservoirs are mere excavations in the earth and that no precautions were taken in their construction to produce an even flow throughout their cross sections. It is probable that the liquor moves through them in a comparatively narrow current and hence is subjected to a much shorter period of sedimentation than their capacities indicate.

PURIFICATION BY RECOVERY.

The methods of purification which involve the recovery of valuable products are more successful in reducing the impurities of wool-scouring liquors than the methods applied for the sake of purification only. The valuable substances which have been recovered on a practical scale are fats and potash, both of which are found in large amounts in the fleece and both of which are added in the scouring process. The most prominent of the methods that have been used successfully will be described.

Cracking process.—The earliest and at present the most usual method of recovery treatment for wool-scouring liquor is known as the "cracking process." In the routine of this process, the liquor is first allowed to settle for a short period to remove the greater portion of insoluble mineral matter. It is then drawn into wooden or lead-lined tanks and treated with sulphuric acid. Acid is added until a breaking up of the liquor or "cracking" is noticed. At this point the liquor has a decidedly acid reaction. The result of the addition of acid is that the fatty compounds are broken up with the formation

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of free fats. The separation of the fats from the mother liquor is, however, somewhat difficult. Usually, after one or two days sedimentation, a considerable portion of the fatty matter collects on the surface and a nearly equal amount at the bottom of each tank, while the middle portion is comparatively clear and free from suspended matter. This middle portion is drawn off and run to waste, while the fatty matters at top and bottom are removed to sludge filters covered with sawdust, in order that surplus moisture may drain off.

The material usually placed on these filters amounts to about one-third of the total volume of the wool-scouring liquor. The sludge, after draining about four days on the filters, is collected in cloths and is made into thin cakes. These cakes are placed in presses heated by steam, which melts the fats so that the resulting oil can be removed by pressure. The mixed water and oil which flows from the presses is collected in cisterns and separated by sedimentation. The oil is subjected to purification by being boiled with a little acid, after which it is allowed to settle and cool in order that any remaining traces of water, acid, and other impurities may be run off. The oil, when cool, solidifies, and it is sold under the name of "de gras," or Yorkshire grease. It is worth from 1½ to 3 cents a pound. A large proportion of the mineral and organic impurities of the wool-scouring liquor remains in the presses in the form of hard-pressed cakes, which are removed and generally thrown away as a waste product. Some establishments have extracted these cakes with volatile solvents in order to obtain a greater yield of fats, but such procedure has not generally been financially successful because of loss of solvent. In Europe they have been used to some extent as a fertilizer base, but their value for this purpose is at least subject to doubt.

Detailed examinations were made at the de gras plant of the Lorraine Manufacturing Company, Pawtucket, R. I. At this establishment preliminary sedimentation of the liquor is omitted, and, in consequence, an usually large proportion of suspended mineral matter is carried through the entire process. Three sets of samples were collected. The scouring liquor of these sets is represented by analyses 2, 3, and 4 of Table 3. Analyses of the waste waters from the acid-treating tanks, of waste waters from the separating cistern which receives mixed water and oil from the presses, and of waste waters from the purification of the oil by boiling with acid, are listed in Table 7. Several samples of the press cake were found to contain fats amounting to 25.2 per cent, 26.3 per cent, 16.7 per cent, and 22.7 per cent of the weight of the dried cake.

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TABLE 7.—*Analyses of waste waters from the de gras plant of the Lorraine Manufacturing Company at Pawtucket, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

	Treating-tank effluent.			Water from separating cistern.		Water from grease purification.
Date, 1907	Mar. 13.	Mar. 22-29.	May 17-23.	Mar. 29.	Mar. 14.	Mar. 14.
Turbidity	1,500	8,000	.....	4,000	4,500	100
Sediment	1.2 per cent.	Heavy.	3.5 per cent.	Considerable.	Considerable.	Considerable.
Oxygen consumed	1,800	2,160	2,800	1,600	1,320	1,025
Nitrogen as free ammonia	330	230	289	80	89	98
Organic nitrogen	200	258	346	402	238	150
Acidity as $CaCO_3$	1,600	2,200	3,000	500	400	34,000
Fats	1,360	4,420	7,000	2,352	2,275	600
Total solids	19,600	21,010	27,670	10,570	10,150	.....
Loss on ignition	6,900	9,960	13,310	7,970	6,200	.....
Fixed solids	12,700	11,050	14,360	2,600	3,950	.....
Shrinkage of wool scoured	High.	42 percent.	48 percent.	.....	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt and H. Stabler.

Table 8 gives in detail the manner in which the scouring liquor at the Lorraine mill is treated, together with estimates of relative volumes at different steps based on 1,000 gallons of scouring liquor. The probable composition of the various materials is also estimated.

TABLE 8.—*Disposal of wool-scouring liquor at the de gras plant of Lorraine mill, Pawtucket, R. I.*

Source.	Total amount of material.		Water.		Composition.			
					Total solids.	Volatile solids.	Fixed solids.	Fats.
	Galls.	*Pounds.*	*Galls.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
Scouring liquor	1,000	8,520	948	7,941	579	406	173	291
Acid used	5.2	77	1.5	13	.....	.....	.....	.....
Liquor from acid-treating tanks	620	5,290	619	5,164	126	60	66	30
Filter effluent	225	2,174	254	2,122	52	25	27	12
Material pressed	.....	1,093	80	668	425	321	104	249
Liquor from cisterns	167	1,405	167	1,391	14	10	4	3
Liquor from purification of grease	7	60	7	60	Trace.	.....	.....	Trace.
Grease recovered	.....	183	.....	Trace.	183	183	Trace.	183
Press cake	.....	255	3	27	228	128	101	63
Total liquid effluent	1,049	8,929	1,047	8,737	192	95	97	45

Comparison of the raw liquor and the total liquid effluent indicates a reduction of 66.7 per cent in total solids, 76.6 per cent in volatile solids, 46 per cent in fixed solids, and 84.5 per cent in fats. This is a much better purification than has been obtained by the usual sewage treatment methods.

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Table 9 gives a comparison of the results obtained at the Lorraine mill and at several English establishments, as calculated from analyses of the raw liquor and of the effluent from the acid-treating tanks:

TABLE 9.—*Per cent of solids and grease removed from or added to wool-scouring liquor by cracking process.*

Factory.	Total solids.	Volatile solids.	Fixed solids.	Grease.
Greenwood & Hanson	−66	−78	− 43	−82
Broadbent	+39	+ 9	+125	−20
Schofield	− 3	−26	+ 80	−83
Millor	− 8	−13	+ 13	−50
Shaw	+10	−11	+125	−32
Average	− 6	−24	+ 60	−53
Lorraine, March 22-29	−69	−80	− 36	−88
Lorraine, May 17-23	−61	−71	− 41	−78

NOTE.—Plus signs indicate material added to the liquors; minus signs indicate material removed from the liquors.

The data for the English establishments are quoted from Naylor[a] as representing the "rule of thumb" treatment of the early days of the process. The comparison is favorable to the operations at the Lorraine mill.

Turner-Akeroyd process.—A modification of the cracking process has been patented in England by Turner and Akeroyd. The usual procedure is most successfully applied to a highly concentrated liquor. The Turner-Akeroyd modification, on the contrary, is applied most successfully to dilute liquors, and can, therefore, be used for the treatment of piece-scouring suds or other comparatively dilute soapy waste waters. The process is intended to effect a more complete separation of fats than can be accomplished in the ordinary method of treatment. The scouring liquor is collected in a precipitation tank, where it is diluted to such specific gravity that the fats which have separated on the addition of acid can all readily sink to the bottom, leaving a clear supernatant liquor. The liquor is agitated for several hours by blowing air through distributors in the bottom of the tank. Acid is then added, and if this alone will not produce the desired separation of fats, a small amount of fine earth is introduced in order to give weight to the precipitate and carry it to the bottom. The treatment of sludge follows the methods of the ordinary cracking process. The system includes filtration of the liquor from the acid-treating tank through gravel overlain with a few inches of ashes and topped with a sprinkling of sawdust. Grease gathers on the surface of the filter and is collected from time to time and pressed for the recovery of fats.

The following table shows the character of the liquors in a Turner-Akeroyd plant at Pittsfield, Mass.:

[a] Naylor, W., Trades waste; its treatment and utilization, 1902, p. 75 (quoted from Third Rept. Rivers Pollution Commissioners, vol. 1, p. 32.)

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TABLE 10.—*Analyses of waste liquors from Turner-Akeroyd plant at Pontusac mill, Pittsfield, Mass.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Scouring liquor.	Liquor from acid-treating tank.	Filter effluent.
Turbidity	4,500	370	50
Oxygen consumed	410	89	64
Nitrogen as free ammonia	2.6	5.5	5.6
Organic nitrogen	47.6	9.1	6.1
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	980	[b] 425	[b] 170
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	Small amount.	1,970	1,660
Iron (Fe)	Trace.	5	2.5
Fats	2,140	175	38
Total solids	4,740	.....	2,460
Volatile solids	3,200	.....	100
Fixed solids	1,540	.....	2,360

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt and H. Stabler. [b] Acidity.

The analyses indicate more thorough purification than is obtained by the other methods of treatment that have been discussed. A sample of press cake from this plant contained 2.6 per cent moisture, 78.4 per cent volatile solids, 19.0 per cent fixed solids, 22.4 per cent fats, and 3.8 per cent nitrogen. Effluent liquors from the ordinary cracking or the Turner-Akeroyd process can be further purified by neutralization with lime and subsequent filtration. This procedure is followed in many European plants where a high degree of purification is essential.

Battage process.—The battage process of grease recovery is followed successfully in France. The scouring suds are conveyed into a narrow tank divided into numerous compartments and provided with agitators which beat up the liquor, raising froth which carries the fats to the surface. The greasy lather thus produced is removed by means of scrapers. Various modifications of this process provide for agitation by means of beaters, compressed air, superheated steam, and other agencies, the object of all being to produce a froth which can readily be removed by skimming. The grease removed in this way is then recovered by treatment with acid and by pressing, as in the cracking process. Several qualities of grease may be obtained. The lather produced in the first compartments is light colored, and it yields a grease of much better quality than that which is obtained from the lather skimmed from the last compartments of the apparatus.

Smith-Leach process.—Another process results in the recovery of fats by means directly opposed to those employed in the Turner-Akeroyd patent. The first procedure is concentration instead of dilution, and the scouring liquor is thus reduced to one-tenth or a less proportion of its original volume. It then has specific gravity of about 1.15 (20° Baumé, or 30° Twaddell). At this concentration the liquor has a sirupy consistency, and on sedimentation and cooling the grease collects at the top and is removed by skimming. In the Smith-Leach modification of this process the separation of the grease

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from the concentrated liquor is accomplished by means of a centrifugal machine similar to the ordinary cream separator. The grease so obtained is nearly pure wool fat (60 to 70 per cent of the entire grease), which commands a price twice as great as that of the grease recovered by the cracking process.

Potash recovery alone has not been applied to ordinary wool-scouring liquor, but it has been used in connection with grease recovery. When the liquor is treated with acid, the value of the potash product is greatly reduced, because the potassium is changed from the carbonate to the sulphate. The electrolytic regeneration of the acid with coincident production of caustic potash has been suggested for the acid liquors, but so far as known it has not been successful on a practical scale because of the high cost of the electric current required. The liquor resulting from washing wool after degreasing with volatile solvents and the waste liquor from the battage grease recovery can be utilized for potash recovery as in the case of steep liquor. Where concentration is used for grease recovery, the utilization of the concentrated waste for potash recovery is a very simple matter, for a little additional concentration, followed by calcination in a reverberatory furnace or in the ordinary rotary incinerator used for soda recovery in soda pulp mills produces a crude potash which has a substantial commercial value. Extraction of this crude product followed by concentration and calcination of the resulting liquor produces a high grade of potash.

Such treatment is a part of the patented Smith-Leach process, which is the highest development of utilization of wool-scouring liquor that has been put into practice. A plant using this complete process has been in practical operation for several years at the Field Head mills, Bradford, England.

The scouring liquor flows through settling tanks to remove the greater part of the sand and mud. From the tanks the liquor passes to a quadruple-effect Yaryan evaporator, which reduces it to one-tenth or one-fifteenth of its original volume. The condensed vapor from this machine provides distilled water of excellent quality for scouring purposes. After the concentrated liquor has been heated nearly to the boiling point, it is passed through a centrifugal separator, which separates it into an outer layer of sand and mud, a middle layer of soapy liquid containing all the potash, and an inner layer consisting almost entirely of wool grease. The sand and mud adhere to the separator and are removed from time to time by hand. The potash liquor and the wool grease are caught up separately and conveyed to separate receptacles. The wool grease is purified by warming it with water and allowing it to separate again by cooling. The potash liquor, which contains a large amount of fat combined as soap, is further concentrated to about one-fourth its volume, and it then passed through a revolving cylindrical incinerator in which

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the remaining water is evaporated and the organic matter is burned, leaving crude potassium carbonate. In this manner the scouring liquor is entirely disposed of and the following products are derived from it: Distilled water, wool grease, crude potassium carbonate, and sand and mud.

The distilled water is not perfectly pure, but contains small amounts of ammonia and grease, which have passed over during evaporation. The patentees claim that 15 to 30 per cent less soap is required in scouring when this distilled water is used. Moreover, the recovered water is at the temperature required for wool scouring. The wool grease is free from mineral and fatty acids, and it can be used without further purification as a lubricant or for any of the purposes for which Yorkshire grease finds a market. The potash salt contains from 50 to 70 per cent of pure potassium carbonate and it can be used in its crude state for wool scouring, or it can be sold for purification. The sand and mud removed by the separator are without market value. The advantages of the process are the entire destruction of the scouring liquor; the treatment of the suds in a fresh state, so that the whole process can be carried on without the production of the noxious odors so common in the ordinary cracking process; the comparatively small space occupied by the whole apparatus, and the profit which can be realized from the recovered products. The prominent disadvantages are the cost of installation for the evaporator and the coal consumption necessary for the vaporization of the water which the liquor contains. Table 11 shows the composition and the amounts of liquor at different steps in the Smith-Leach process as conducted at Field Head mills. The figures are computed from analyses by F. W. Richardson, and 1,000 gallons of liquor are used as a basis.

TABLE 11.—*Disposal of wool-scouring liquor at Smith-Leach plant of Field Head mills, England.*

Source.	Total amount of material.		Water.		Composition.				
					Total solids.	Grease.	Organic impurities.	Soluble mineral matter.	Insoluble mineral matter.
	Galls.	*Lbs.*	*Galls.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
From evaporator:									
Crude suds	1,000	8,452	970	8,100	352	174	78	73	27
Concentrated suds	103	959	73	607	352	174	76	63	39
Condensed water	897	7,493	897	7,493	.5	.4	0	.1	0
From separator:									
Grease	30	125	.6	5	120	118	.6	.....	1
Potash liquor	73	832	72	601	231	56	55	64	56
Earthy matter	0	2	0	.5	1.5	.2	0	0	1.3
	103	959	73	606	352	174	56	64	58
From evaporating incinerator:									
Crude potash	.....	94	0	0	94	.....	2	64	28
Loss	.....	738	72	601	137	56	53	0	28
	.....	832	72	601	231	56	55	64	56

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The results of one week's operation of the plant at the Field Head mills are given in the following balance sheet. This record is adapted from the unpublished report of H. McLean Wilson, chief inspector of the West Riding rivers board, under whose direction the test of the plant was made. During the week of the test half of the wool washed was scoured wool. Consequently the waste liquor was very dilute and it forms an extremely conservative basis for estimates. Furthermore, the plant has double the capacity required for the amount of liquor treated and the fixed charges are therefore relatively high. The scouring liquor had presumably about the following composition in parts per million: Total solids 18,400 (volatile solids 13 100, fixed solids 5,300), fatty matters 8,900.

Balance sheet of Smith-Leach plant of Field Head mills, England, during week's test.

Cost of plant		$21,900
Amount of wool scoured	pounds	65,256
Amount of scouring liquor	gallons	66,000
VALUE OF PRODUCTS.		
3,300 pounds of wool fat	$146.00	
2,830 pounds of crude potash	93.98	
53,100 gallons of distilled water	6.69	
Soap saved by using above water—one-seventh total soap used	10.22	
		256.89
COST OF OPERATION.		
Coal, 19 tons (41,780 pounds)	50.54	
Labor, 3 men	16.60	
Interest and depreciation, 10 per cent	42.10	
		109.24
Profit		147.65
Profit per annum		7,677.80
Per cent of profit		35

The foregoing profits could not be realized in this country, owing to the greater cost of labor and the higher price of coal in the textile centers of the United States. The figures are of interest, however, for they show what has actually been done on a practical scale under adverse working conditions.

ECONOMY OF TREATMENT.

Reports of plants in operation in the United States indicate that the cracking and Turner-Akeroyd processes result in the recovery of sufficient grease to pay all costs of operation. In general, with the market value of recovered grease less than 2 cents a pound, the operations are conducted at a loss, but with higher values a profit is obtainable. The market value ranges from 1½ cents to 3½ cents, with a probable average of 2 cents a pound, so that little, if any, profit is to be expected from these processes under American conditions of practice.

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A plant equipped for the Smith-Leach process and capable of utilizing 500 gallons of wool-scouring liquor an hour, ten hours a day, three hundred days a year, would cost approximately $13,000. The fixed charges of operation (interest, depreciation, and repairs) may be safely estimated at 11 per cent of the cost, or $1,430 a year. The cost of labor (3 men) would not exceed $1,650 a year. Fuel, 300 tons of coal at $4.50, allowing 10 per cent for banked fires fourteen hours daily, would amount to $1,350 a year if a triple-effect vacuum evaporator is used. If $200 a year is allowed for incidentals, the total cost of operation would amount to $4,630. In order to make the estimate more conservative, the costs may be placed at $5,000 a year, or $1 for each gallon of the daily capacity of the plant. In return for this expenditure, wool fat valued at 4½ cents a pound and crude potash worth 5 cents per pound of potassium carbonate content would be recovered.

The recoverable wool fat may be safely assumed to be 60 per cent of the fats indicated by analysis of the liquor. Numerous tests on the ash of scouring liquors indicate that the recoverable potash is equal to or greater than the potassium carbonate equivalent of the alkalinity of the liquor, and this equivalent may therefore be taken as a conservative estimate of the recoverable potash. The following estimate of costs, values, and profits, based on the foregoing facts and assumptions, has been made for treatment of the liquors represented by the analyses in Table 3 (p. 13). The numbers for the column headings have the same significance in both tables.

TABLE 12.—*Estimate of costs, values, and profits for application of Smith-Leach process to various wool-scouring liquors.*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	Average (omitting 2).
Value of wool fat	$4,920	$19,920	$12,890	$10,680	$6,820	$8,830
Value of potash	6,920	6,920	2,680	3,300	2,460	3,840
	11,840	26,840	15,570	13,980	9,280	12,670
Cost	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
Profit	6,840	21,840	10,570	8,980	4,280	7,670
Per cent profit on investment of $13,000	53	168	81	69	33	59

Column 2 in Table 12 is calculated from an abnormal analysis, and estimates based on it were therefore omitted from the average. Column 5, representing the liquor treated at the Field Head mills in England, gives lower values than any other. The results previously given for a week's test at those mills indicate a 31 per cent profit from grease and potash under the working conditions—comparatively low labor costs and unnecessarily high cost of plant. The check obtained by this figure is an excellent one. It should be noted that in the test at the Field Head mills an additional 4 per cent profit is derived from the distilled water obtained and the soap saved through its use. This is an additional advantage of the process that is by no means negligible, although it has been omitted from Table 12 in order

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that the estimates may be more conservative. If, as has been proved by several years' operation, the dilute liquors at the Field Head mills can be made to yield a profit, it is to be expected that the more concentrated liquors examined in the United States would give even better results. The average of 59 per cent profit, or $7,670 a year on an investment of $13,000, leaves a wide margin for marketing recovered products, and this is believed to be a conservative estimate. Larger plants could be operated even more economically, but smaller ones would necessarily be placed at a disadvantage because of relatively higher costs of maintenance. The effect of different concentrations of fat and potash in the liquors is shown in Table 12. Expressed in unit values, 385 parts per million of fat or 150 parts per million of alkalinity make a difference of 1 per cent in the estimated profits. The character of the wool scoured, and more especially the amount of water used in scouring it, influence the economy of treatment.

SUMMARY.

1. Wool is impregnated with many impurities which must be removed before it can be used in the manufacture of textiles.

2. The common methods of cleansing wool are: (*a*) Scouring with soap, alkali, and water; (*b*) steeping and scouring; and (*c*) scouring with volatile solvents. Such treatment produces great quantities of foul liquors containing valuable substances, which can usually be recovered profitably with coincident purification of the liquors.

3. The scouring liquor most frequently encountered in the United States is the waste suds from scouring with soap, alkali, and water. Purification of this liquor by the usual methods of sewage treatment is difficult at best and usually impracticable. Purification combined with recovery of grease or potash is possible and can generally be accomplished at little or no expense. The degree of purification and the coincident profit on the capital invested for three prominent systems of treatment are shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13.—*Degree of purification and profit of different methods of treating wool-scouring liquor.*

	Per cent purification.			Per cent profit on capital invested.
	Total solids.	Volatile solids.	Fats.	
Cracking process	65	75	83	0
Turner-Akeroyd process (including filtration)	48	97	98	0
Turner-Akeroyd process (excluding filtration)	.....	.....	92	0
Smith-Leach process	100	100	100	59

4. All the evidence gathered tends to show that wool-scouring liquor can be entirely destroyed by means of the Smith-Leach process, and that sufficient valuable products can be recovered therefrom to pay all costs of treatment and leave a substantial profit on the capital invested.

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BLEACHING AND DYEING COTTON YARN.

BLEACHING PROCESSES AND WASTE WATERS.

The methods of bleaching and dyeing cotton yarn do not differ in essential principles from those of bleaching and dyeing other cotton goods, but the form of the material and its condition with respect to impurities render the processes more or less distinctive.

Gray boil.—The yarn when brought to the bleachery contains dirt that has accumulated during transportation as well as other impurities that must be removed before bleaching. The first process is cleansing in the gray boil. The yarn is placed by hand in closed iron kiers, after which water and steam are admitted. The desired amount of alkali, usually sufficient to make a 0.5 to 1 per cent solution of caustic soda, is then added, and boiling with open steam pipes is continued for ten or twelve hours. The kiers are so designed that the solution circulates through the yarn, and an open steam exhaust keeps the pressure very low. The natural impurities, including cotton wax, margaric acid, pectic acid, parapectic acid, and albuminous matters, and constituting from 3 to 5 per cent of the weight of the yarn, are emulsified and dissolved by boiling in the dilute alkaline solution, which does not appreciably affect the cotton fiber. At the end of the boil the liquor is drawn off and the yarn is thoroughly rinsed with fresh water.

Bleaching.—After it has been rinsed and drained the yarn is removed from the kiers and placed in stone or concrete vats. Bleaching or "chemic" solution, usually chloride of lime of a strength represented by a specific gravity of 1.01 (2° Twaddell, or 1.5° Baumé), is added until the yarn is covered. The material is steeped for a period of two to four hours, and the solution is drained off and returned to storage tanks for further use. The steeped yarn is then rinsed by covering it with water and draining; two such rinsings are usually given in order to remove excess of chemic solution. A weak acid, or "sour" solution, usually sulphuric acid of 1.005 specific gravity (1° Twaddell, or 0.75° Baumé), is then admitted in sufficient quantity to cover the yarn. The chemic solution remaining in the material reacts with the acid, and bleaching by oxidation results. After steeping a few hours, the acid is drawn into a storage tank and held for further use.

Cotton fiber has the property of concentrating within itself acid from a solution; furthermore, it is sensitive to acid and easily injured by it; for these reasons, and also in order to prevent additional and uncontrolled bleaching action, the material must be cleansed from all traces of acid at this stage. This is accomplished by three successive rinsings with fresh water in the masonry vats and by "soaping," which is customarily done by hanging the skeins of yarn on wooden

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sticks and moving them by hand through narrow wooden vats which contain dilute soap solution. The soap effectually neutralizes any remaining acid and leaves the fiber in proper condition. A final rinsing in clear water in similar vats removes the excess of soap from the yarn. The soaping and rinsing may be effected by means of revolving wheels on which the sticks bearing skeins of yarn are fastened like the cars on a Ferris wheel. Partial drying in centrifugal machines, drying by heat, and winding on spools are the finishing processes.

Wastes.—The waste waters from the bleaching processes are described in the following paragraphs. The estimates of quantity of the different materials are based on the treatment of 1 ton of yarn.

Waste A, gray-boil liquor: Usually 250 to 1,000 gallons in amount, with an average of 600 gallons; contains 25 to 30 pounds of sodium compounds expressed in terms of caustic soda and 60 to 75 pounds of impurities from the cotton; reddish brown or garnet in color and has a characteristic odor like that of burnt sugar.

Waste B, gray-boil rinse: Amounts to about 3,000 gallons; contains about 10 to 15 pounds of sodium compounds and 25 to 40 pounds of impurities from the cotton; in reality a diluted portion of waste A. As the rinsing is usually accomplished by a continuous stream of water, this waste varies in character from a concentration nearly equal to that of waste A to nearly pure water.

Waste C, first chemic rinse: About 1,000 gallons in amount; contains small quantities of sodium compounds and cotton impurities and comparatively large amounts of calcium chloride, some sulphates, and some free chlorine, giving total solids of 10 to 15 pounds; characterized by a strong chlorine odor.

Waste D, second chemic rinse: Similar to waste C in quantity and in quality except that it is much more dilute, containing only about one-fifth as much matter in solution.

Waste E, first sour rinse: Amounts to about 1,000 gallons, like the other sour rinse waters and the chemic rinses; has a slight odor of chlorine and contains 20 to 25 pounds of free acid and 10 to 15 pounds of calcium sulphate; other impurities are small in amount.

Waste F, second sour rinse: Practically a dilution of waste E; character determined by the quality of water used for rinsing, from which it differs by having a slightly lower alkalinity and a somewhat increased sulphate content.

Waste G, third sour rinse: Similar to waste F.

Waste H, soap liquor: Amounts to about 4,500 to 5,000 gallons; light blue in color by reason of the addition of a small amount of bluing to whiten the goods; has a characteristic soapy appearance, with high turbidity, alkalinity, and fat content, 30 to 40 pounds of soap having been used.

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Waste I, soap rinse: Same in quantity as waste H, of which it is a dilution; contains one-fifth to one-tenth as much soap and organic matter as waste H and is too dilute to warrant much consideration.

Waste J, lime sludge: Chloride of lime is agitated with water in cement-lined tanks in order to prepare the bleaching solution. As the chloride of lime is never pure, an insoluble sludge collects at the bottom of the tanks and is removed periodically. The sludge is semi-liquid in consistency and contains chlorides, hypochlorites, hydrates, carbonates, and sulphates of calcium, together with small amounts of other substances. The amount of sludge is 30 to 50 pounds, varying in quantity and in consistency with the quality of bleaching powder and with minor changes in manipulation.

An excellent opportunity was afforded the writers to study the processes and waste waters from the bleaching and dyeing of cotton yarn at the establishment of the R. D. Mason Company, Pawtucket, R. I.

Table 14 shows the character of the wastes from cotton-yarn bleaching at this establishment. Wastes A, B, E, and H are the most objectionable.

TABLE 14.—*Character of waste liquors from bleachery of the R. D. Mason Company, Pawtucket, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

	Waste A (gray-boil liquor).	Waste C (first chemic rinse).	Waste D (second chemic rinse).	Waste E (first sour rinse).	Waste F (second sour rinse).	Waste G (third sour rinse).	Waste H (soap liquor).	Waste I (soap rinse).
Date, 1907	Mar. 7	Feb. 21	Feb. 21	Feb. 21	Feb. 21	Feb. 21	Feb. 21	Feb. 21
Amount in gallons	2,400	3,200	3,200	3,200	3,200	3,200	14,000	15,000
Color	Orange.	21	28	12	21	21	Light blue.	Slight soapy.
Odor	Burnt sugar.	Chlorine.	Slight chlorine.	Slight chlorine.	None.	None.	Soap and chlorine.	Soap.
Turbidity	650	10	5	5	5	5	400	50
Sediment	Considerable.	Considerable.	Very slight.	Slight.	Slight.	Slight.	Slight.	Very slight.
Oxygen consumed	4,400	17.5	3.5	9.2	1.7	1.5	84	12
Nitrogen as free ammonia	6.5	.17	.05	.02	.05	.04	.25	.15
Organic nitrogen	234	1.00	.50	1.00	.35	.30	2.00	.90
Chlorine	260	635	72	70	24	24	34	20
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	440	Slight.	Slight.	[b] 2,790	30	30	345	53
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	360	408	78	3,800	47	44	60	54
Fats	3,520	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	380	46
Total solids	17,920	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Loss on ignition	9,320	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler. [b] Acid.

DYEING PROCESSES AND WASTE WATERS.

Wet-out process.—Though cotton yarn must be cleansed before it can be satisfactorily dyed, dyeing does not always require so thorough a preliminary treatment of the yarn as bleaching does. The cleansing process, or "wet out," is conducted in kiers like those used for the gray boil before bleaching. The yarn is piled in these kiers and boiled

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with water and steam but without chemicals for about six hours. After the boiling has been completed, the material is rinsed in the kiers and then allowed to drain for several hours, after which it is ready for dyeing. For some colors, the entire bleaching process may be substituted for the wet-out boil.

Dyeing.—Dyeing operations are many and varied, and they are usually conducted in the form of apparatus described for the soaping process in bleaching. Machines are generally employed for heavy colors, and the dye baths are saved for further use. The lighter colors are more often applied by the hand process, and the baths are discharged after having been used but once. The following abstracts from Thorp's text-book [a] give some idea of the varied character of the liquors discharged from a dyehouse for cotton yarn.

Direct dyes, or those which yield full colors without the assistance of mordants, are applied in a boiling bath usually with 10 to 15 per cent of common salt or Glauber's salt. Ingrain colors require in addition "diazotizing" in a cold bath of sodium nitrite acidulated with hydrochloric acid, and "developing" by treatment with phenols, naphthols, or amines. Basic dyes, or those which form insoluble tannates and require mordants on vegetable fibers, are the salts of colorless bases. The cotton is first mordanted in a bath of tannin, turkey-red oil, or soap, and it is then treated in a bath of the dyestuff. The base of the dyestuff combines with the acid of the mordant to form the color, and the goods are not washed after having been dyed. Acid dyes are applied in a very concentrated bath to which common salt, acetic acid, and alum are added, or the yarn may be first mordanted in a bath of alum and soda or of stannic chloride followed by alum and soda. Tannin treatment may precede mordanting with alum and soda. Mordant dyes for cotton are chiefly turkey reds, logwood blacks, and alizarin colors, and they always require a metallic mordant, such as the salts of aluminum and less frequently those of chromium, iron, and tin. Oil, sodium carbonate, powdered chalk, sodium phosphate, sodium arsenate, and calcium acetate are some of the accessory chemicals that may be used in the processes. After having been dyed, the yarn may be subjected to soap baths. Special dyes include those colors which are prepared or developed directly on the fiber by peculiar processes and include indigo, aniline black, and certain azo colors. The baths may contain sodium hyposulphite, copperas, zinc compounds, milk of lime, potassium bichromate, copper salts, potassium ferrocyanide, and many other chemicals.

Wastes.—Any or all of the classes of dyes mentioned above may be applied in a dyehouse during a single day, or one class may be used

[a] Thorp, F. H., Outlines of industrial chemistry, 1901, pp. 482–494.

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one day and another the next. It is impossible, therefore, to predict the nature or the color of the liquor in a dyehouse sewer. Average results for a day's run offer the best opportunity for comparisons, but even these may vary widely from day to day. The quantity of liquor discharged also varies considerably, as one bath may suffice for fixing some colors, while seven or eight baths may be required for fixing others. The waste liquors from a cotton-yarn dyehouse may be classed under three heads, as follows:

Waste K, wet-out liquor: Orange colored; has a peculiar odor like that of scorched vegetable matter, and contains a large amount (about 3 per cent by weight of the yarn) of the impurities, chiefly organic, removed from the fiber; in quantity it averages about 600 gallons per ton of yarn. Similar in many respects to waste A. (See p. 28.)

Waste L, wet-out rinse: A dilution of waste K, concentrated at first, but becoming more nearly pure water as the rinsing progresses; usually amounts to from 2,500 to 3,000 gallons and contains 10 to 20 pounds of impurities per ton of yarn.

Waste M, sewage from dyeing processes: Of extremely varied character; changes color at frequent intervals and varies in reaction from strongly acid to excessively alkaline. The quantity may be roughly estimated at 20,000 to 30,000 gallons per ton of yarn, and the content of impurities at from 250 to 400 pounds of dyes, and other chemicals per ton of yarn.

The following table shows the general characteristics of waste K and the nature of waste M for one day at a yarn dyehouse:

TABLE 15.—*Character of waste liquors at cotton dyehouse of the R. D. Mason Company, Pawtucket, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Waste K ("wet-out" liquor).	Waste M (dyehouse sewage).
Date, 1907	Mar. 7.	Mar. 6.[b]
Amount ... gallons	2,400	90,000
Color	Orange.	Red to purple.
Odor	Scorched vegetable matter.	Dyes.
Turbidity	70	300
Sediment	Considerable.	Heavy.
Oxygen consumed	1,140	240
Nitrogen as free ammonia	7.2	1.8
Organic nitrogen	106	5.25
Chlorine	115	250
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	400	40
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	120	530
Fats	429	27
Starch	Present.	.....
Total solids	4,430	1,470
Loss on ignition	2,860	450

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler. [b] Composite.

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PURIFICATION OF WASTE WATERS.

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS.

Experimental treatment by the Massachusetts state board of health[a] of a composite liquor composed of six of the most objectionable wastes from the processes of dyeing, bleaching, and mercerizing cotton yarn, mixed in proportion to the quantity of each waste, showed that about 87 to 90 per cent removal of organic matter was effected by sand filtration, and that about 92 to 93 per cent removal was obtained by the use of chemical precipitants followed by sand filtration. Though the waste was a very turbid brown liquor, the effluents were straw colored. A rate of 50,000 gallons per acre per day was used in the work.

Experimental work on waste dye liquors from a woolen mill was also conducted.[b] While this waste is not derived from the industry under discussion, it seems proper to mention here the general conclusions reached, as follows: The waste dye liquor from a woolen mill can be sucessfully treated by sand filtration at sewage rates; a large part of the color will be removed, but more surface raking is required than is necessary with sewage. The addition of copperas followed by lime in amounts averaging about one-half ton each for 1,000,000 gallons will effect good color removal when the liquor is allowed to settle about one hour; the resulting supernatant liquor can be filtered through sand at rates approximating 2,000,000 gallons per acre per day with good results. The sludge will be about 1.5 per cent of the volume of the liquor treated and can be satisfactorily filtered at a rate of 40,000 to 50,000 gallons per acre.

Though the wastes from a cloth dyeing and finishing works at Ravenna, Ohio, studied by Stabler,[c] were liquors from dyeing wool, they resemble those under discussion sufficiently to justify mention. His work indicated that for chemical precipitation of such liquors lime and copperas together gave better purification at less cost than either alone. Separate treatment of the concentrated dye wastes was more economical than treatment with the rinse water, "crab" waste, and a waste from washing and dyeing wool. Straining these four combined through sifted coke breeze at a rate of 520,000 gallons per acre per day removed from one-third to one-half the organic matter present. Results from the operation of an experimental plant at Ravenna confirmed the conclusion drawn from laboratory tests on the use of lime and copperas as precipitants, and indicated

[a] Thirty-eighth Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board Health, 1906, p. 301.

[b] Thirty-fifth Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board Health, 1903, p. 271.

[c] Stabler, Herman, Disposal of waste water from cloth dyeing and finishing works at Ravenna, Ohio. Ohio Sanitary Bull., vol. 10, 1906, p. 189.

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that the combined wastes were fairly well purified when treated with 12 pounds of copperas and from 8 to 10 pounds of lime per 1,000 gallons, at a cost of about 7½ cents. The concentrated dye waste, taken alone, showed about 70 per cent removal of organic matter when treated with 42 pounds of copperas and 15.8 pounds of lime per 1,000 gallons, at a cost of about 23 cents.

LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS.

Several experiments, which were not refined in detail, were made in the laboratory by the writers on liquors from the Mason establishment. Waste A, the gray-boil liquor, was treated with different amounts of sulphuric acid. Complete coagulation was most nearly obtained by using 58 pounds of sulphuric acid per 1,000 gallons. The liquor became clear in about two minutes and the coagulum, probably a very impure pectic acid, was reduced in half an hour to 5.6 per cent, by volume, of the original liquor. Analyses before and after treatment showed the following results:

TABLE 16.—*Analyses of waste A before and after treatment with sulphuric acid.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Before treatment.	After treatment.
Oxygen consumed	4,400	3,320
Organic nitrogen and nitrogen as free ammonia	240	156
Fats (ether-soluble matter)	3,520	2,050
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	440	−3,500
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	360	7,900
Total solids	17,920	20,280
Loss on ignition	9,320	9,580

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler.

These analyses do not show great improvement in the quality of the liquor, though there is a decided reduction in oxygen consumed, nitrogen, and fatty matters. The dried coagulum was largely volatile, 96.6 per cent being lost on ignition. Less visible purification was procured by the use of greater or less amounts of acid and by the substitution of hydrochloric for sulphuric acid. The substance removed by this coagulation contained much coloring matter, and was readily soluble in alkaline solutions, especially solutions of the caustic alkalies.

Equal parts of waste A, the gray-boil liquor, and waste K, the "wet-out" liquor, were treated with sulphuric acid in the ratio of 58 pounds of the acid to 1,000 gallons of waste. The coagulum gathered and the liquor cleared as in the preceding experiment. The following

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analyses show, as would be anticipated, that the relative purification is similar to that of the former experiment; 98.1 per cent of the dried coagulum was lost on ignition:

TABLE 17.—*Analyses of wastes A and K (mixed) before and after treatment with sulphuric acid.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Before treatment.	After treatment.
Oxygen consumed	2,770	1,720
Organic nitrogen and nitrogen as free ammonia	177	113
Fats (ether-soluble matter)	1,975	1,370
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	420	−3,750
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	240	7,200
Total solids	11,180	13,400
Loss on ignition	6,090	6,380

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler.

Waste E, the first sour rinse, and waste H, the soap liquor, were combined in the proportion in which they occur in the bleachery, 1 part of the former to 4.38 parts of the latter. The result was a coagulation of the soap. The following analyses of the combined liquors and the filtrate after coagulation disclose very decided purification of both wastes:

TABLE 18.—*Results of mixing wastes E and H.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Combined liquors.	Filtrate.
Color	Light blue.	15
Turbidity	330	0
Oxygen consumed	70	23.2
Organic nitrogen and nitrogen as free ammonia	2.02	1.75
Fats	310	12
Acidity as $CaCO_3$	240	200

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler.

Waste M, the dyehouse sewage, was treated with milk of lime at the rate of 2½ pounds per 1,000 gallons (17.5 grains per United States gallon) and 3⅓ pounds per 1,000 gallons (23.3 grains per United States gallon). The former mixture was filtered after standing sixteen hours, and the latter after standing five hours, and the filtrates were both subjected to analysis, with results as shown in Table 19.

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TABLE 19.—*Results of treating waste M with lime.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Waste M (dye-house sewage).	After treatment with 2½ pounds of lime per 1,000 gallons, and after 16 hours' sedimentation.	After treatment with 3½ pounds of lime per 1,000 gallons, and after 5 hours' sedimentation.
Color	Reddish purple.	Light straw.	Very light straw.
Turbidity	300	0	0
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	530	350	350
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	40	124	80
Oxygen consumed	240	102	99
Organic nitrogen and nitrogen as free ammonia	7.05	3.25	3.45

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler.

The color of the filtrates faded on standing. Both parts of the experiment show very good decolorization and removal of more than 50 per cent of the organic matter. The lower percentage of lime, with longer time for reaction and sedimentation, seems to give fully as good results as the second treatment.

No experiments were made with the lime sludge, waste J. It is a precipitant of great value and could doubtless be used in place of lime in a precipitation plant, thus reducing the cost of chemicals and disposing of an additional waste.

EXPERIMENTS AT PAWTUCKET, R. I.

Waste M, the liquor causing most serious pollution from the R. D. Mason plant, except the bleach-house boils, is discharged through the dyehouse drain. Filtration experiments having been started at another plant with kier liquors (see p. 47), the work at this plant was confined to the wastes from the dyeing processes, the wet-out liquor, however, not being included in samples taken or applied to the filters, as it was discharged very early in the morning.

Character of wastes.—The liquors which are discharged from the dyeing processes at this establishment are typical. They are disagreeable to look at, on account of the coloring matter in them, and they exert an influence on the stream into which they are discharged which is objectionable not only because of the unsightly appearance but also because of the organic matter and chemicals which they contain in solution. Samples of the liquor taken at different times have shown, as would be expected, great variations in its quality, the colors varying between the widest extremes and the organic and mineral contents showing similar fluctuations. A fairly accurate conception of the average character of the liquor with which experiments were made can be obtained from the analysis of the composite sample, given in line 1 of Table 20. The analyses of nine samples of the dye water,

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collected on different days between October 10, 1907, and January 18, 1908, are also given in this table, and they show great variation in results; but an average of them, as shown by line 11, represents a liquor of nearly the same strength as the composite sample.

TABLE 20.—*Analyses of liquor from dye drain of R. D. Mason Company.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise satted.]

Sample No.	Date.	Oxygen consumed.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.		Solids.		Loss on ignition.		Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
				Total.	Dissolved.	Total.	Dissolved.	Total.	Dissolved.	
	1907.									
1	Mar. 6	240	1.8	5.2	.....	1,470	.....	450	.....	.....
2	Oct. 10	102	1.3	2.9	2.4	1,140	1,092	206	168	Very high.
3	Oct. 17	144	.3	1.3	.....	790	612	356	182	20,000
4	Oct. 31	257	1.4	6.4	4.8	906	782	426	340	100,000
5	Nov. 8	85	1.0	2.7	1.5	1,576	1,482	262	248	.....
6	Nov. 21	155	1.0	1.0	.....	570	.....	290	.....	40,000
7	Dec. 20	354	1.0	3.0	.....	1,174	.....	764	.....	Less than 10,000.
	1908.									
8	Jan. 3	194	.7	1.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	740,000
9	Jan. 10	660	4.9	2.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,000
10	Jan. 18	218	.7	15.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Less than 10,000.
11	.....	241	1.4	4.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

1. Composite of samples taken every half hour from 9 a. m. to 5.30 p. m.
2 to 10, inclusive. Single samples taken between 10 a. m. and 11.45 a. m., at time when filters were dosed.
11. Average of 2 to 10, inclusive.

Sand filters.—It was decided to study the results which could be obtained by applying this waste dye liquor to sand filters. The applied liquor was not selected with special reference to its appearance or composition, but was generally drawn directly from the dyehouse effluent when the attendant was ready to dose the filters. In case the effluent appeared very dilute, however, the dosing was postponed a few minutes until a normal sample could be taken. Two galvanized iron filters were installed, each 6 feet high and 20 inches in diameter, with slightly inclined bottoms to permit thorough draining through faucets at the lowest level. Underdrainage was provided by a foot of coarse cinders overlain by 10 inches of crushed stone approximately the size of pea coal. The filtering material was 3½ to 4 feet of sand, having an effective size of 0.24 millimeter and a uniformity coefficient of 3.4. The filters were set up in the yard and were subject to all effects of the weather.

Effluents.—Filter No. 1 was started on October 1, 1907, with a dose of 5 gallons a day, or at the rate of 100,000 gallons per acre per day, six days in the week, and that size of dose was continued till November 22. During this time the filter delivered an effluent of extremely good appearance, free from color due to dyes (average reading = 48), and low in organic content as shown by analysis. (See Table 21.)

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TABLE 21.—*Analyses of effluent from filter No. 1 treating dye liquor.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

Sample.	Date.	Color.	Oxygen consumed.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as nitrates.	Nitrogen as nitrites.	Chlorine.	Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$.	Total solids.	Loss on ignition.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.	Rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day)
	1907.												
1	Oct. 10	75	9.6	1.65	0.47	.....	0.008	.....	.....	796	211	2,250	100,000
2	Oct. 17	85	7.2	.65	.64	0.50	.176	.....	.....	1,001	87	800	100,000
3	Oct. 31	18	5.0	.80	.20	.08	.032	82	.....	493	61	73,000	100,000
4	Nov. 8	32	4.6	.80	.29	.05	.016	56	16	696	82	.....	100,000
5	Nov. 21	30	5.5	.16	.23	.22	.011	106	21	524	64	36,700	100,000
6	Dec. 13	Wine.....	20.0	.16	.64	Present.	Present.	.....	.....	501	74	60,000	400,000
7	Dec. 20	Brownish wine...	140.0	1.36	1.54	Present.	.100	.....	0	1,133	348	50,000	200,000
	1908.												
8	Jan. 3	Dark brown.....	99.2	.44	1.50	.....	.100	.....	20	.....	.....	50,000	400,000
9	Jan. 10	Dark reddish brown.....	84.0	.49	1.85	Present.	4.000	.....	.....	.....	.....	10,000	100,000
10	Jan. 18	Light brown.....	22.8	.18	1.38	1.75	.700	.....	.....	.....	.....	10,000	100,000
11	Feb. 21	Violet.....	42.0	.26	1.20	.70	.020	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100,000
12	.....	.....	6.4	.81	.37	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

1 to 11, inclusive, represent single samples taken between 10 a. m. and 12 m.
12. Average of 1 to 5, inclusive.

From November 22 to January 4 the filter was dosed at the rate of approximately 400,000 gallons per acre per day, and the combined effect of cold weather and the increased rate caused the effluent to show color; from December 13 until the last dosing on February 21 the effluent was not of good appearance, nor did it give a satisfactory analysis, though from January 4 until the filter was stopped the dose was the same as originally—100,000 gallons per acre daily. The exposure of the cans to extremely cold weather probably had an appreciable influence on the work of the filter during the latter part of the run. The fact that the experimental filters were entirely above ground allowed much greater chilling effects on their contents than would occur in a plant where only the tops are exposed. The surface of neither filter was raked during the run, but the sand was leveled two or three times. The detailed analyses of the effluent from filter No. 1 are given in Table 21.

Filter No. 2 was a duplicate of No. 1 as to construction and filtering material. It was started at the same time, October 1, 1907, at the rate of approximately 200,000 gallons per acre per day, and this rate was continued throughout the run of the filter. The same deterioration in quality and appearance of the effluent during extremely cold weather was noticed, and it is probable that to the excessive exposure of the cylinders, to which reference has been made, were due largely the comparatively poor results obtained during the latter part of the run. For the purpose of comparison, therefore, it seems best to select the results obtained during the same period used for figuring on filter No. 1—that is, from October 1 through November 21.

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During this period the filter gave an effluent of fairly good appearance, at times even lower in color than that from No. 1, but a little color from the dyes seemed to pass through it always, and sometimes the shade was marked. The figures for organic nitrogen and oxygen consumed were higher on this filter, as would be expected at the higher rate.

TABLE 22.—*Analyses showing organic purification of dye liquor by filtration.*[a]

Source.	Milligrams per liter.			Per cent removal.		
	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.
Waste from dye drain	1.80	5.21	240	.....	.....	.....
Average of 5 analyses of effluent from filter No. 1, when run at 100,000-gallon rate	.81	.37	6.4	55	93	97
Average of 5 analyses of effluent from filter No. 2, when run at 200,000-gallon rate	.89	.67	11.8	51	87	95

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

The effluents from both filters always contained nitrites, but the nitrates were never high, although they were always present to some extent. The percentage of removal effected by filter No. 1 at the 100,000-gallon rate and by filter No. 2 at the 200,000-gallon rate on nitrogen as free ammonia, organic nitrogen, and oxygen consumed is shown in Table 22, for which the analysis of the composite sample of March 6 (line 1, Table 20) has been used as a basis for calculating percentage removal.

Detailed analyses of the effluent from filter No. 2 are shown in Table 23.

TABLE 23.—*Analyses of effluent from filter No. 2 treating dye liquor.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter, unless otherwise stated.]

Sample.	Date.	Color.	Oxygen consumed.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as nitrates.	Nitrogen as nitrites.	Chlorine.	Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$.	Total solids.	Loss on ignition.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.	Rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day).
	1907.												
1	Oct. 10	47	3.2	2.45	0.43	(?)0.05	0.044	.....	....	712	133	15,000	200,000
2	Oct. 17	35	6.2	.89	.48	.40	.160	.....	....	1,030	68	5,000	200,000
3	Oct. 31	L. purple.	28.5	.56	1.53	(?)	.200	72	....	597	92	158,000	200,000
4	Nov. 8	45	8.9	.50	.46	.14	.140	82	31	764	110	.....	200,000
5	Nov. 21	40	12.2	.07	.47	.38	.026	208	30	676	81	69,000	200,000
6	Dec. 13	Wine.	27.2	.13	.56	Present.	Present.	.....	....	743	74	100,000	200,000
7	Dec. 20	Brownish.	83.0	.61	1.67	Present.	1.000	.....	22	700	223	25,000	200,000
	1908.												
8	Jan. 3	D. brown.	68.8	.21	.93	Present.	.140	.....	20	.....	.....	10,000	200,000
9	Jan. 10	D.y.brown.	85.0	.64	1.95	Present.	4.000	.....	....	.....	.....	25,000	200,000
10	Jan. 18	D.p.brown.	28.0	.28	1.62	1.85	1.200	.....	....	.....	.....	5,000	200,000
11	Feb. 21	Violet.	46.0	.20	1.25	1.00	2.500	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	200,000
12	.....	.....	11.8	.89	.67	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	200,000

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

1 to 11, inclusive, represent single samples taken between 10 a. m. and 12 m.
12. Average of 1 to 5, inclusive.

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Effect on sand in filters.—When the plant was dismantled on March 5, 1908, the sand in the filters was sampled at the top inch, 6 inches down, 2 feet down, and just above the crushed stone. The sand was not at all clogged, nor had it become so at any time during the run, but it was badly discolored for about 6 inches down, and discolored channels ran through the rest of the bed, though the larger part of the main body had apparently not been affected in color. The results of determining albuminoid ammonia and loss on ignition on the samples of sand, given in Table 24, show that even the surface sand was not extremely high in stored organic matter, and that it would have been suitable for a much longer run without being replaced.

TABLE 24.—*Analyses showing albuminoid ammonia and loss on ignition of filter sands.*[a]

Sand from filter No. 1.			Sand from filter No. 2.		
Source.	Albuminoid ammonia.	Loss on ignition.	Source.	Albuminoid ammonia.	Loss on ignition.
	Parts per million.	*Per cent.*		*Parts per million.*	*Per cent.*
Top inch	71	1.31	Top inch	65	1.10
6 inches down	19	.42	6 inches down	19	.44
2 feet down	15	.37	2 feet down	14	.37
Bottom	12	.38	Bottom	8	.32

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

COST OF TREATMENT.

The following estimate, indicating the approximate cost of treating the dyehouse waste by sand filtration at the rate of 100,000 gallons per acre per day, is based on a flow of 100,000 gallons a day:

Estimated cost of sand filtration of dyehouse waste.

Cost of plant (flushing tank with automatic regulator and 1 acre of filtration beds)	$5,000
Annual cost of maintenance:	
Interest on $5,000 at 5 per cent	250
Depreciation and repairs at 8 per cent	400
Labor	160
	810

Another estimate has been prepared on the assumption that the laboratory experiments with lime precipitation are a fair index of practical treatment of the waste in a plant similar to the apparatus used for water softening or for mechanical filtration of water.

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Estimated cost of purification of dyehouse waste by lime precipitation.

Cost of plant (apparatus for chemical treatment, sedimentation, and filtration; pump; and sludge beds, with total area of about 400 square feet)	$4,000
Annual cost of maintenance:	
Interest on $4,000, at 5 per cent	200
Depreciation and repairs, at 10 per cent	400
Pumping, at 0.25 cent per 1,000 gallons	75
Labor	75
Lime, at $6 a ton (treatment at rate of 3 pounds per 1,000 gallons)	270
	1,020

These figures indicate that the choice between the two methods of treatment, so far as cost is concerned, is determined by the area available. Mechanical treatment can be conducted on one-tenth the area necessary for sand filtration, and this is a distinct advantage in an urban community, because it appreciably reduces the cost of installation and interest. The effluent from the sand filter, however, is decidedly better in quality, showing a removal of over 90 per cent of the organic matter, as against a removal of little more than 50 per cent by the mechanical plant. The effluent from a plant of either style is satisfactory in color, which is the first requisite in purification of a dye liquor. Sand filtration at the rate of 200,000 gallons per acre per day would reduce the cost of the plant by 50 per cent and would make the annual cost of maintenance less than $500. The combined factors of reduced area and lower cost of maintenance under such conditions indicate that sand filtration is usually the most desirable method of treatment. Local conditions as to area obtainable and final disposal of effluent, however, necessarily determine whether the waste liquor from a yarn dyehouse can be purified most advantageously in a mechanical plant, by means of sand filters, or by a combination of the methods.

The conclusions drawn from these investigations are in accord with those of a previous less detailed study by the Rhode Island state board of health of the dyehouse waste from the R. D. Mason mill, possibly mixed at times with bleach-house waste. They are also consistent with the work of other investigators, though the proposed rates of filtration are somewhat higher.

SUMMARY.

1. Waste waters from dyeing cotton yarn can be satisfactorily purified by filtration through sand. If the rate of filtration is 100,000 gallons per acre per day, six days a week, 90 to 97 per cent of the organic matter and practically all color can be removed from the liquor with an investment of $50 (not including cost of land) and at an

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annual cost (including interest, depreciation, repairs, and labor) of $8.10 per 1,000 gallons per day. If the rate of filtration is doubled, 85 to 95 per cent of the organic matter can be removed and color can usually be reduced to a satisfactory extent, though this item will vary somewhat with changes of temperature in the filtering medium and changes of intensity of color in the applied waste. The investment of the annual cost for such purification would be, respectively, $25 and $4.50 per 1,000 gallons per day.

2. Laboratory experiments indicate that 50 to 60 per cent of the organic matter and all the objectionable color can be removed from the waste waters by precipitation with about 3 pounds of lime per 1,000 gallons (21 grains per gallon). A mechanical plant operating by this method would cost $40, and would require an annual outlay (including interest, depreciation, repairs, pumping, chemicals, and labor) of about $10.20 per 1,000 gallons per day.

3. Laboratory experiments indicate that yarn-bleaching liquors may be purified. Gray-boil liquor treated with sulphuric acid and filtered loses about 35 per cent of its organic matter, but the cost of treatment is relatively very high for the benefits derived. Similar results are indicated for a mixture of gray-boil and wet-out liquors. Filtration or sedimentation of mixed soap liquors and sour-rinse water produces a highly purified effluent.

BLEACHING COTTON PIECE GOODS.

BLEACHING PROCESSES AND WASTE WATERS.

The routine processes in a cotton-goods bleachery are described below. These processes, however, are followed only in a general way at Saylesville, where the writers conducted investigations, for there, as at other progressive bleacheries, experience has suggested many modifications of detail and of apparatus.

The pieces of goods, having first been marked for identification, are sewed together into one continuous piece or web, and this web, spread out to the full width of the goods or gathered into a rope, as the nature of the treatment may determine, is drawn from one process to another until the treatment is completed. It first usually passes close to a red-hot plate or cylinder in order to singe loose fiber and lint. After singeing it may be given a preliminary washing in water in order to soften the impurities, which are chiefly sizing materials, such as starch or china clay, but it is more frequently subjected at once to the kier boil.

For this process the cloth is packed in large iron vats or kiers and boiled for several hours with caustic soda or with lime and steam. The kiers have false bottoms, and circulating devices arranged so that the boiling liquor flows on the goods and then passes downward

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through them, softening and removing the impurities. For the finer grades the caustic boil is used, consisting of 40 to 50 pounds of caustic soda and 1,000 gallons of water with each ton of material. A large amount of the organic matter is dissolved by this liquor, which becomes very dark colored and loses part of its causticity. For the coarser materials the lime boil is used. It consists of 50 to 60 pounds of lime, as milk of lime, with 1,000 gallons of water for each ton of goods treated. Much of the organic matter forms insoluble compounds with the lime in this boil and remains on the cloth, but the greater part passes out with the waste liquor. After the boil has been completed the liquor is drawn into the sewer and the goods are drained.

When the goods are removed from the kier, they carry with them more than one-third of the kier-boil liquor, together with insoluble matters that have been loosened from or deposited on the fabric. This matter is removed by washing machines, in which the rope of cloth passes over rollers immersed in a stream of running water. As 8,000 to 10,000 gallons of water are used in this process for each ton of material, the waste water is very dilute, containing only 4 to 5 per cent as much foreign matter as the kier-boil liquor, though its portion of suspended matter is relatively greater. The amount of impurities removed from the cloth in the kier boils and in the subsequent washing is generally from 8 to 15 per cent of the weight of the cloth.

After the cloth has been passed through the washing machines the bleaching is continued. The fabric is passed through chloride of lime solution, is rinsed, and is allowed to stand for a few hours in stone or masonry vats. Souring by weak sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, rinsing, treatment in baths of sulphurous acid and soda ash follow in succession. The chemic, sour, and soda-ash solutions are used over and over. The rinse waters are run to waste, and they carry with them small amounts of cloth impurities and mineral matter from the baths. The quantity of water used in these processes is large, and the waste waters are in consequence very dilute. They were not included in the investigations made by the writers at Saylesville.

A piece of cloth in some of the later bleaching or finishing processes is often found to be stained or dirty. If it does not seem necessary to subject this a second time to the entire bleaching procedure, it may be washed in "dolly" washers preparatory to finishing, but only a small percentage of the goods in the bleachery reaches these washers, in which the cleansing process consists merely in soaping the goods and washing them in water. About 350 gallons of water and 1½ pounds of soap are used for each ton of material bleached. The waste waters are somewhat soapy in appearance and they contain but little refuse matter.

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The chemic solution is prepared by agitating commercial chloride of lime with water. The lime compound is not chemically pure, and a semiliquid sludge, which settles out, is discharged as a waste product. It amounts to about 5½ gallons (45 to 50 pounds) per ton of material bleached. It is similar to milk of lime in appearance and contains chiefly calcium compounds. A partial analysis of it gave the following results: Total solids, 18.6 per cent; loss on ignition, 0.34 per cent; insoluble in hydrochloric acid, 0.89 per cent; reaction, alkaline.

The analyses of wastes from the Saylesville bleachery in Table 25 show the great concentration of the kier liquors and the comparative weakness of the other waste waters. The same fact is brought out even more clearly by the estimates in Table 26.

TABLE 25.—*Character of liquors at Saylesville, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

	Waste from the lime boil.	Waste from the caustic soda boil.	Rinse water from the lime boil.	Rinse water from the caustic soda boil.	Effluent from the dolly washers.
Color	Orange.	Reddish brown.	Gray.	Light orange.	Soapy.
Odor	Lime.	Alkali.	Lime.	Alkali.	Soapy.
Turbidity	120	600	260	220	350
Sediment	Heavy.	Slight.	Heavy.	Considerable.	Heavy.
Oxygen consumed	5,200	5,000	154	168	136
Nitrogen as free ammonia	5	5	0.3	0.2	0.03
Organic nitrogen	190	233	6.4	8.0	1.15
Alkalinity as $CaCO_3$	1,840	3,600	84	180	52
Fats	848	974	20	130	84
Total solids	17,230	18,280	808	850	848
Loss on ignition	11,970	10,860	532	520	612

[a] Analyses by Pratt and Stabler.

TABLE 26.—*Quantity of waste liquors and solids in same, Saylesville, R. I.*

Waste.	Gallons per diem.	Tons per diem.		
		Total.	Inorganic.	Organic.
Caustic and lime boils	60,000	6.70	2.30	4.40
Rinse waters from same	825,000	3.40	1.20	2.20
Dolly washer wastes	24,000	.08	.02	.06
Other waste liquors	5,091,000	2.32	2.23	.09
	6,000,000	12.50	5.75	6.75

PURIFICATION OF WASTE BLEACHING LIQUORS.

So far as known to the authors, the purification of the concentrated liquors from the kiers has not heretofore been attempted, though treatment of the combined waste liquors of bleacheries has been effected with varying degrees of success.

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Purification in England.—The bleaching processes in England, according to Naylor,[a] are somewhat different from those herein outlined, and the liquors, though similar in quality of impurities, are widely different in concentration from those which were studied at Saylesville. The waste liquors in England contain principally organic matter, such as resins, fats, starches, waxes, and soaps, both in suspension and in solution, lime and calcium salts in solution, china clay in suspension, and soluble salts of sodium and potassium.

The sodium and potassium salts, principally chlorides, are not at present susceptible to practical precipitation nor to any other mode of elimination, except the commercially impossible method of recovery by evaporation of the water. Most of the lime is precipitated as sulphate by the sulphuric acid of the sour liquors, if the wastes are allowed to mix and settle. The precipitate, however, is usually not sufficiently dense, and carries with it the buoyant soaps, starches, or fats, the result being a turbid liquor resembling an emulsion, though eventually clarification nearly always takes place. Such purification is too tedious and requires far too much settling space. Up to the present time the most successful method of clarification is by means of precipitation tanks, successful installations of which are described by Naylor. At Leyland, Lancashire, 500,000 gallons daily of mixed liquors from dyeing and bleaching cotton are treated by precipitation with lime and alumina ferric. The supernatant liquor is usually discharged into the river, but it is sometimes filtered through 5 feet of sand and furnace clinkers, after which it is again used in the bleachery. The amount of waste water is estimated at 50,000 gallons per ton of cloth. The following figures from Naylor's account show the concentration of the liquor that is treated and the purification that takes place.

TABLE 27.—*Purification of bleaching liquors at Leyland, Lancashire, England.*

Source.	Solids in parts per million.		Per cent removal.		
	Total.	Volatile.	Total.	Volatile.	Remarks.
Raw liquor	1,660	680	.....	.....	Highly discolored.
Supernatant liquor	1,320	400	20	41	Clear.
Effluent from filter	660	100	60	85	Clear and sparkling.

Precipitation appears to be satisfactory only as a preliminary process, the greater part of the purification being accomplished by sand filtration. The sludge removed by precipitation contains about 95 per cent water and is, so far as known, valueless. Accord-

[a] Naylor, W., Trades waste; its treatment and utilization, 1902, pp. 164-180.

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ing to the foregoing figures, the sludge amounts to about 2.68 pounds of dry material or 53.6 pounds of wet material per 1,000 gallons; 0.93 pound of alumina ferric per 1,000 gallons is used; the amount of lime used is not stated. Although no estimates of cost are given, a plant of this character would cost about $15,000 in the United States, excluding cost of land; and the total annual cost of operation and maintenance would amount to $6,000, or about 4 cents per 1,000 gallons.

Naylor states that a similar purification plant at the works of Grafton & Co. is unable to accomplish results as satisfactory as those at Leyland. The admixture of soapy liquors at this plant renders the deposition of a precipitate difficult, and it was concluded that satisfactory treatment by precipitation could not be accomplished, unless the soapy liquors were segregated and treated with very large quantities of precipitants. Naylor states also that application of bleachery wastes to land is unsatisfactory because they tend to undergo acid fermentation, and that artificial filters soon became choked and failed to work. He recommends bacterial treatment in septic tanks, followed by filtration through sprinkling filters. Such installation proved successful in treating mixed bleaching and dyeing liquors at the works of Peel, Tootal & Co., after precipitation tanks and ordinary continuous-flow filters had been found to be unsatisfactory. The septic tank of this company is of sufficient size to provide three days' storage and it was seeded with sewage sludge. Putrefaction is maintained by allowing the sewage of employees to enter the waste waters and by occasional additions of sewage sludge. The filter material is cinders graded from not more than 2½ inches diameter at the bottom to not less than one-fourth inch diameter at the surface. A similar plant was installed at Leyland after a septic tank and contact filters had proved to be unsatisfactory. Septic tanks and filters can not be maintained unless the chloride of lime solution is separated from the wastes.

Purification in Massachusetts.—Experiments in the United States on the purification of bleachery wastes have been reported by the Massachusetts state board of health.[a] The liquor treated was much more dilute than the kier liquors used in the experiments by the authors. It was "a mixture of the stronger" bleachery waste waters. The fairly clear supernatant liquor, which was left after the soap in the mixture had been precipitated, was applied at the rate of 50,000 gallons per acre per day to a filter of 3 feet of sand having an effective size of 0.25 millimeter. Table 28 shows the extent of the reduction in solids accomplished by sedimentation and filtration.

[a] Thirty-eighth Ann. Rept. Massachusetts State Board Health, 1906, p. 300.

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TABLE 28.—*Purification of stronger bleaching liquors in Massachusetts.*

Source	Solids in milligrams per liter.		Per cent removal.		Remarks.
	Total.	Volatile.	Total.	Volatile.	
Raw liquor	2,926	696	.....	.....	
Supernatant liquor	2,494	548	15	21	Fairly clear.
Effluent from filter	1,821	148	38	79	Clear, colorless, nonputrescible.

A removal of about 90 per cent of the organic matter was effected, as measured by determinations of both albuminoid ammonia and oxygen consumed. The raw liquor contains much more mineral matter than that treated by precipitation and filtration at the plant at Leyland, England, but the content of organic matter is practically the same. Precipitation appears to give more satisfactory results than sedimentation, though the filtration reported by Naylor[a] is less efficient, as may be expected from comparison of the filtering media that were used.

Sedimentation, precipitation, and septic treatment of bleachery wastes appear to be satisfactory only as preliminary processes; and the degree of purification increases in the order in which the processes are named. The best secondary treatment seems to be bacterial filtration, sprinkling filters and sand filters having proved to be satisfactory and contact filters unsatisfactory.

TREATMENT OF LIME-BOIL AND CAUSTIC-BOIL LIQUORS.

LABORATORY EXPERIMENTS.

The authors' experiments were confined to the most concentrated of all bleachery wastes, the lime-boil and the caustic-boil liquors. Sulphuric acid or the sludge from chloride of lime solution produces a heavy precipitate when mixed with the kier liquors, and precipitation with these substances was tried in the laboratory. The precipitate with acid, although apparently of great bulk and composed almost entirely of organic matter, contains so small a percentage of the impurities that this method of treatment was rejected. The best result obtained was a 17 per cent removal of volatile solids from the caustic-boil liquor with acid in the proportion of 52 pounds of sulphuric acid to 1,000 gallons of waste.

The use of lime sludge on the caustic-boil liquor also failed to give satisfactory results, but the sludge is an effective precipitant for the lime-boil liquor. The mixing of 3.2 volumes of sludge with 100 volumes of liquor gave a 32 per cent reduction in volatile solids, but smaller amounts of sludge gave less efficient purification. The use of

[a] Naylor, W., Trades waste; its treatment and utilization, 1902, pp. 164-180.

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such sludge on lime-boil liquors to aid other coagulants in purification by precipitation would probably be economical. The amount of sludge produced at Saylesville is sufficient to precipitate only about a third of the lime-boil liquors. If subsequent treatment of all the liquor by bacterial methods is contemplated, the use of lime sludge is undesirable because of the inhibiting effect of its hypochlorites on bacterial growth.

EXPERIMENTS AT SAYLESVILLE, R. I.

Description of purification plant.—A small plant, consisting of storage tank, septic tank, and filters for the treatment of mixed lime-boil and caustic-boil liquors was installed at the Saylesville bleachery. The storage tank, an old boiler shell of 750-gallon capacity, was so placed that 460 gallons of liquid could be discharged from it into the septic tank by gravity, and a drain plug was provided to facilitate the discharge of all the remaining liquor if desirable. The septic tank, an open iron vat about 8 feet long with a capacity of 350 gallons under the conditions of operation, had sloping sides and a rounded bottom. It varied in width from 2½ feet at the top to 1½ feet near the bottom, and it had a maximum depth of about 2½ feet. An inflow pipe connected with the storage tank and regulated by a valve discharged downward at mid depth of the septic tank. The effluent was taken from mid depth by a similar pipe, and no baffles were used to direct the flow. A drainpipe provided for sludge removal and for cleaning.

Each of the 7 filters was an open galvanized-iron cylinder 6 feet deep and 20 inches in diameter, with a filtering area of 2.18 square feet, or one twenty-thousandth of an acre. The filters were exposed to all weather conditions. The filtering media were found on the bleaching premises. An immense bank of good quality filter sand was available, which without treatment had the following characteristics: Effective size, 0.27 millimeter; uniformity coefficient, 4.8; smaller than 0.10 millimeter, 1 per cent; lime by hydrochloric acid test, none. Coke, the only other filtering medium that was used, was obtained from a water-gas plant on the premises. It was broken in order to obtain pieces varying from one-half inch to 2½ inches in diameter.

Operation of storage tank.—A pipe was laid from the storage tank to the kier house and branches were connected to the kiers used for the lime boil and the caustic boil. A steam jet forced the liquors from the kiers to the storage tank every morning when the kiers were emptied. Usually the liquors from both lime and caustic boils were available, in which case the mixed liquors were used to fill the tank, but sometimes only one class of kier liquor could be obtained and occasionally no liquor could be procured. Generally, however,

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the storage tank was filled five or six times a week with scalding-hot kier liquors. The valve on the pipe connecting the storage and the septic tank was so regulated that 460 gallons of liquor were discharged from the storage tank in about fifteen hours. On July 16 there was a slight evidence of septic action in the storage tank, which was confirmed by the bacterial counts on samples collected July 12 and July 23; accordingly the tank was flushed weekly after July. Table 29 gives the results of testing 13 samples of the untreated liquor which was used in the work on experimental purification. The examinations cover a period of about four months and the samples were dipped from the storage tank. These analyses represent a very strong alkaline waste.

TABLE 29.—*Character of untreated waste liquor at Saylesville, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
	Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.				
1907.							
June 7	17,412	11,962	5,450	2.5	191	5,200	550
June 14	18,086	10,964	7,122	4.0	222	5,160	1,000
June 21	20,544	12,952	7,592	4.0	226	5,280	1,000
June 26	17,240	11,412	5,828	3.0	228	5,220	10
July 12	16,676	9,264	7,412	1.5	229	3,540	[b] 1,900,000
July 23	14,980	8,652	6,328	1.5	196	3,260	[b] 11,800,000
July 31	.....	.....	.....	5.5	210	5,080	425
August 8	18,576	12,380	6,196	3.0	201	3,760	90,000
August 20	.....	.....	.....	5.7	210	4,960	10,000
August 28	.....	.....	.....	9.8	160	5,340	Low.
September 11	.....	.....	.....	6.5	203	5,060	600
September 18	.....	.....	.....	6.6	148	3,740	1,500
September 27	.....	.....	.....	4.0	125	3,780	400
Average	.....	.....	.....	4.4	196	4,570	.....

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt. [b] Some evidence of septic action in storage tank, July 16, 1907.

Operation of septic tank.—The septic tank was dosed five or six times a week with 460 gallons of waste liquor, and, since the capacity of the tank was only 350 gallons, a complete change of its contents was effected each time. The septic period, with regular dosing, varied from twelve to twenty-one hours, with a probable average of sixteen hours. The tank was filled on May 22, 1907, and a keg full of sewage sludge was distributed through the contents to start bacterial action. Active gasifaction accompanied by a characteristic pigpen odor was apparent in a few days. On May 30 regular dosing was begun. On August 7 the septic tank contained a little over a foot of heavy black sludge, which was beginning to escape with the effluent from the tank. This deposit was therefore drawn off, leaving only about 1 to 2 inches in the bottom, and the operation of the tank was resumed. The plant was dismantled on November 26 on account of the piping that would have been exposed to very severe weather.

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The results in Table 30 were obtained on 13 samples of liquor taken as it flowed from the septic tank to the filters; they cover a period of about four months.

TABLE 30.—*Character of septic tank effluent, Saylesville, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
	Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.				
1907.							
June 7	13,776	9,182	4,594	5.0–	181	4,040	14,000,000
June 14	15,606	10,264	5,342	6.5–	231	5,320	21,000,000
June 21	14,692	8,132	6,560	1.5–	176	3,620	11,500,000
June 26	15,780	8,964	6,816	1.5–	196	2,660	12,000,000
July 12	15,160	7,312	7,848	2.5–	229	2,320	10,710,000
July 23	14,020	7,532	6,488	4.0	203	2,500	21,200,000
August 8	12,800	7,200	5,600	14.8	198	2,820	3,600,000
August 20				14.8	136	3,880	1,000,000
August 28				18.0	155	3,880	70,000
September 11				7.5–	232	4,000	190,000
September 18				15.6	158	2,740	120,000
September 27				5.0	146	3,020	160,000
October 11				7.4	139	2,440	143,000
Average				8.0	183	3,330	

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt.

Operation of filters.—The effluent from the septic tank was applied to all the filters except No. 6, which was dosed for a short time with liquor from the storage tank, but later with the septic-tank effluent. Filters Nos. 1 and 2 each had 4½ feet of coke for the filtering medium; they were operated first as continuous trickling filters and later as intermittent trickling filters dosed by siphons. Filters Nos. 3 to 7, inclusive, were operated as sand filters, each containing as the filtering medium 4½ feet of sand underlain by 1 foot of coke; the filters were dosed at different intervals and the rates of filtration were varied. Determinations of albuminoid ammonia in samples of sand collected from these five filters on November 26 are given in Table 38. Analyses by G. H. Pratt of samples of the effluents from all the filters are detailed in Tables 31 to 37, inclusive.

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TABLE 31.—*Character of effluent from filter No. 1, Saylesville, R. I.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.				
1907.											
June 7	300	Very heavy	Dark beer	Burnt sugar and alkali	11,230	6,956	4,274	4.0—	85	3,000	5,250,000
June 14	380	Heavy	Dark brown	Decidedly disagreeable and musty	12,742	8,162	4,580	5.5—	131	3,140	11,500,000
June 21	600	Considerable	Black coffee	Hogpen and moldy	10,580	6,592	3,988	3.5—	128	2,250	8,500,000
June 26	1,200	do	do	do	9,244	4,560	4,684	8.0—	147	1,520	1,200,000

TABLE 32.—*Character of effluent from filter No. 2, Saylesville, R. I.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.				
1907.											
June 7	[a] 500	Very heavy	Very dark beer	Burnt sugar and alkali	12,146	7,638	4,508	5.5—	120	3,600	3,720,000
June 14	[a] 800	do	Light muddy brown.	Decidedly disagreeable and moldy	13,266	7,874	5,392	4.5—	201	4,340	35,000,000
June 21	[a] 1,000	do	Muddy coffee	Hogpen	15,612	8,728	6,884	3.5—	196	3,840	15,700,000
June 26	[a] 800	Considerable	Coffee	do	15,620	8,364	7,256	2.5—	191	2,580	1,000,000

[a] Very great.

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[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.		
1907.													
June 7	[a] 220	Considerable	Whitish	Distinctly moldy	2,472	772	1,700	3.0—	5.0	Trace (?)	0.002	145	Low.
June 14	[b] 350	Slight	Pale straw, darker on standing.	do	3,484	1,040	2,444	.0—	7.0	Trace.	Trace.	288	2,500,000
June 21	[b] 180	Very slight	Lemon	Decidedly moldy	6,408	3,056	3,352	1.5—	34.1	Trace.	Trace (?)	640	1,500,000
June 26	[c] 120	Slight	Lemon juice	do	7,040	3,304	3,736	1.5—	28.0	0.00 (?)	.000	538	40,500
July 12	([c])	do	Weak tea	Distinctly moldy	8,656	3,528	5,128	12.5—	42.0 (?)	.00 (?)	.000 (?)	406	90,000
July 23	([c])	do	Muddy beer	Distinctly unpleasant and moldy.	9,492	3,504	5,988	32.8	76.4	Trace (?)	.000	562	30,000
July 31	([c])	Very slight	Dark tea	Faintly unpleasant				33.6	82.8			664	1,300,000
August 8	([b])	None	Muddy beer	do				44.3	73.0	Trace (?)	.000	615	270,000
August 20	([c])	Considerable	Muddy brown	do				48.8	48.8	.00 (?)	.000	460	160,000
August 28	([c])	Very slight	Muddy beer	Distinctly unpleasant				42.6	38.1		.000	400	50,000
September 11	([c])	do	Yellowish	Faintly unpleasant				22.1	16.0	.00 (?)	.000	148	65,000
September 18	([c])	Slight	Yellowish brown	Distinct of celery				23.8	18.0	.00 (?)	.000	150	11,000
September 27	([d])	do	do	Very faintly unpleasant.				38.1	38.1	.00 (?)	.000 (?)	246	13,000
October 11	([a])	Very slight	Reddish brown	do				14.8	25.8	.00 (?)	.020 (?)	180	11,200
October 23	([d])	None	Dark ale	Faintly unpleasant				6.2	41.0	.00 (?)	.050 (?)	530	216,000
November 1	([e])	Very slight	Dark beer	Distinctly sweetish				11.1	84.5	Trace (?)	.000	1,200	
November 13	([c])	Slight	Brown	do				10.7	45.1	Trace (?)	.000	510	28,200

[a] Very slight. [b] Great. [c] Decided. [d] Slight. [e] Very decided.

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TABLE 34.—*Character of effluent from filter No. 4, Saylesville, R. I.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.		
1907.													
June 7	a 170	Considerable	Dark straw	Decidedly moldy	5,546	2,746	2,800	3.0—	34	0.00	0.000	1,270	8,750,000
June 14	a 105	Slight	Pale straw	do	7,040	3,520	3,520	1.0—	37	.00	.000	1,290	8,500,000
June 21	a 140	do	Weak tea	do	9,948	4,940	5,008	2.5—	65.2	.00	.000	1,400	800,000
June 26	b 120	do	do	do	10,828	5,460	5,368	9.5—	74.0 (?)	.00 (?)	.000	1,160	40,000
July 12	(b)	Very slight	Muddy dark beer	Decidedly moldy and alkali.	11,136	4,600	6,536	36.0—	91.0 (?)	.00 (?)	.000 (?)	710	85,000
July 23	(b)	Slight	Muddy beer	Distinctly unpleasant and moldy.	11,104	4,320	6,784	55.8	98.4	Trace (?)	.000	805	80,000
July 31	(c)	Very slight	Dark tea	do				53.3	94.8			700	50,000
August 8	(d)	None	do	Faintly unpleasant				55.0	86.9	Trace (?)	.000	675	60,000
August 20	(b)	Very slight	Muddy ale	do				46.7	63.6	.00 (?)	.000	625	40,000
August 28	(d)	do	Dark beer	Distinctly unpleasant				48.4	54.1		.000	555	10,000
September 11	(a)	Slight	Brown	Faintly unpleasant				23.8	28.3	(?)	Trace.	232	17,000
September 18	(b)	Very slight	Yellowish brown	do				28.3	23.8	.00 (?)	.000	276	2,000
September 27	(b)	Slight	Turbid brown	Barnyard				50.4	56.6	.00 (?)	.000	362	500
October 11	(e)	Very slight	Reddish brown	Faintly moldy				30.8	44.7	.00 (?)	.000	320	8,400
October 23	(a)	Considerable	Turbid brown	Faintly hogpen				30.3	45.5	.00 (?)	.100 (?)	572	18,400
November 1	(f)	Slight	Turbid dark beer	Distinctly sweetish				23.0	89.4	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	1,100	
November 13	(b)	do	Dark beer	Distinctly sweetish and unpleasant.				17.6	52.9	Trace (?)	.100 (?)	790	9,000

a Great. b Decided. c Very slight. d Slight. e Very great. f Very decided.

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TABLE 35.—*Character of effluent from filter No. 6, Segment 7.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.		
1907.													
June 7	[a] 220	Considerable	Dark straw	Decidedly moldy	7,032	3,700	3,332	2.5—	52.5	0.00	0.000	1,580	12,000,000
June 14	[a] 150	Slight	do	do	11,090	5,900	5,190	1.0—	81.0	.00	.000	1,800	5,200,000
June 21	[a] 100	Very slight	Weak tea	do	13,052	6,800	6,252	5.5—	88.8	.00	.000	1,690	900,000
June 26	[b] 100	Slight	Tea	do	13,136	6,700	6,436	17.0—	99.0 (?)	.00 (?)	.000	1,450	40,000
July 12	([b])	Very slight	Dark beer	Decidedly moldy and alkali.	12,356	5,512	6,844	46.5—	100.5 (?)	.00 (?)	.000 (?)	850	60,000
July 23	([b])	do	Very dark ale	Decidedly unpleasant and moldy.	12,312	5,040	7,272	65.6	109.0	Trace (?)	.000	1,060	50,000
July 31	([c])	Slight	Turbid light beer	Decidedly moldy				46.3	80.8			650	380,000
August 8	([c])	Very slight	Dark beer	Distinctly moldy				47.6	97.2	Trace (?)	.000	760	100,000
August 20	([b])	do	Muddy ale	Faintly unpleasant				41.8	76.3	.00 (?)	.000	665	110,000
August 28	([a])	Considerable	Brownish black	Hogpen				44.3	85.3		.000	730	5,000
September 11	([a])	do	Muddy brown	do				38.4	59.0	(?)	.000	520	24,000
September 18	([a])	Slight	Dark muddy brown.	Barnyard				44.3	58.6	.00 (?)	.000	450	330,000
September 27	([a])	do	Dark brown	do				46.3	60.7	.00 (?)	.000	358	25,000
October 11	([d])	do	Reddish brown	Hogpen				22.6	56.6	.00 (?)	.060 (?)	310	12,800
October 23	([a])	Considerable	Turbid brown	do				15.6	52.1	.00 (?)	.050 (?)	382	77,000
November 1	([a])	do	Chocolate	Distinctly sweetish				12.7	76.7	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	588	
November 13	([a])	Very slight	Turbid dark beer	Distinctly sweetish and unpleasant.				9.0	40.2	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	510	6,800

[a] Great. [b] Decided. [c] Slight. [d] Very great.

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TABLE 36.—*Character of effluent from filter No. 6, Saylesville, R. I.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.		
1907.													
July 23	None	None	Strong clear tea.	Sweetish of sugar	10,530	4,400	6,130	3.0—	28.7	Trace (?)	0.600	1,250	20,000
July 31	do	Very slight	Dark wine	Distinctly sweetish and moldy.				[a] 4.5	57.4			940	
August 8	Very slight	do	Dark tea	Distinctly unpleasant				4.5	64.4	Trace (?)	.000	640	20,000
August 20	None	Considerable	Dark vinegar	do				16.0	54.1	0.00 (?)	.000	655	80,000
August 28	Very great	do	Muddy coffee	Distinctly moldy				43.1	46.3		.000	490	10,000
September 11	do	Heavy red	Reddish brown	Distinctly sweetish and earthy.				17.2	38.5	(?)	Trace.	390	32,000
September 18	Very great (red).	do	Very turbid red brown.	Distinctly sweetish				16.4	19.2	.00 (?)	Trace.	285	3,500
September 27	Very great	do	Red brown	Sweetish and earthy				27.1	46.3	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	380	200
October 11	do	do	Reddish brown	do				26.7	37.3	.00 (?)	Trace (?)	280	5,400
October 23	do	do	do	do				20.5	54.5	.00 (?)	.050 (?)	390	8,400
November 1	do	do	Brown	Earthy and sweetish				13.5	60.3	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	680	
November 13	Very slight	Slight	Dark porter	Distinctly sweetish				10.3	57.0	Trace (?)	Trace (?)	810	11,800

[a] High (?).

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TABLE 37.—*Character of effluent from* [illegible]

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
					Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.		
1907.													
July 23	Great	Considerable (red).	Orange brown	Sweetish of sugar	8,576	3,072	5,504	4.9	20.0	Trace (?)	0.200	374	20,000
July 31	Slight	Very slight	Dark ale	Distinctly sweetish and moldy.				[a] 4.5	102.0			1,420	600,000
August 8	Great	do	Very dark porter	Distinctly unpleasant				7.5	117.8		.000	1,620	2,600,000
August 20	Decided	Considerable	Very dark brown	Very faintly unpleasant.				17.2	56.6	0.00 (?)	.000	850	120,000
August 28	Slight	Very slight	Dark beer	Distinctly unpleasant				38.5	41.0		.000	490	50,000
September 11	Decided	Slight	Brownish yellow	Faintly unpleasant				20.9	28.3	(?)	Trace.	186	4,000
September 18	do	do	Yellowish brown	do				23.3	23.3	.00 (?)	.000	234	6,500
September 27	Great	Considerable (red).	Reddish brown	do				35.3	50.0	Trace (?)	.000 (?)	380	11,000
October 11	Very great	do	do	Very faintly unpleasant.				20.5	41.8	.00 (?)	.100 (?)	300	10,600
October 23	Great	Heavy (red)	do	Faintly unpleasant				17.6	44.3	.00 (?)	.100 (?)	320	15,000
November 1	Very decided	None	Dark beer	Very faintly unpleasant.				12.3	61.1	Trace (?)	.000 (?)	344	
November 13	Very great	Heavy (red)	Light coffee	Distinctly sweetish				9.0	45.5	Trace (?)	.160 (?)	390	4,400

[a] High (?).

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TABLE 38.—*Albuminoid ammonia in sand from filters, Saylesville, R. I.*[a]

[Milligrams per liter.]

Source of sand.	Filter No.				
	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
Surface	586	558	129	248	555
6 inches down	232	246	155	210	161
2 feet down	75	56	[b] 65	101	121
4 feet down	45	41	56	83	67

[a] Analyses by G. H. Pratt. [b] Sample taken a little more than 2 feet down.

Filter No. 1 was operated as a continuous trickling filter four days a week from May 30 to June 7, but the distribution of the liquor over the surface was poor. The filter was dosed at the rate of 70,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 40,000 gallons per acre per day. It was operated as an intermittent trickling filter dosed by a siphon with fair distribution over the surface from June 8 to June 26, the dose being applied five days a week at the rate of 70,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 50,000 gallons per acre per day.

Filter No. 2 was operated as a continuous trickling filter four days a week from May 30 to June 7. The distribution of liquor over the surface was poor. The filter was dosed at the rate of 120,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 70,000 gallons per acre per day. It was operated as an intermittent trickling filter dosed by a siphon with fair distribution over the surface from June 8 to June 14, during which period the dose was applied five days a week at the rate of 120,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 85,000 gallons per acre per day. It was operated as a contact filter from June 15 to June 26, with one treatment a day six days in a week. It was filled in an hour, and was emptied in one-half hour, the contact lasting eight hours. It was dosed at the rate of 650,000 gallons per acre per day, a net rate of 560,000 gallons per acre per day.

Filter No. 3 was dosed once daily six times a week from May 30 to June 14, at the rate of 20,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 17,000 gallons per acre per day. It was dosed once daily three times a week from June 15 to June 26, at the rate of 40,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 17,000 gallons per acre per day; once daily six times a week from June 27 to October 15, at the rate of 20,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 17,000 gallons per acre per day; and once daily six times a week from October 16 to November 26, at the rate of 40,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 34,000 gallons per acre per day. On September 11 the surface of the sand was leveled on account of a slight depression in the middle. On October 11 the sand was apparently in as good condition as when operation of the filter began. No clogging and only slight discoloration of the surface was evident. On

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November 26 the sand in the center for about 2½ feet down was considerably darker in color than that on the sides.

Filter No. 4 was dosed once daily six times a week from May 30 to June 14, at the rate of 40,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 34,000 gallons per acre per day, and once daily three times a week from June 15 to June 26, at the rate of 60,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day.

During the rest of the time that it was operated, except the period from September 27 to October 7, the filter was dosed once daily at the rate of 30,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day. On September 11 the surface was leveled on account of a slight depression in the sand. On September 27 the surface of the sand was black and the filter had hardly become dry from the dose of the day before. Wet weather prevailed at that time, and the dosing was delayed until the sand had become dry. By October 11 the condition of the surface had become much improved and the filter was apparently disposing of the dose satisfactorily, but there was some question as to whether the filter would remain efficient without being scraped. During the first part of November the dose just disappeared from day to day, and on November 13 a small amount of liquor was still on the surface of the sand, which was black with a slimy deposit. On November 26 the surface of the sand was dark-colored for about 8 inches down from the surface, but it was fairly clean below that point.

Filter No. 5 was dosed once daily six times a week from May 30 to June 14 with a dose equivalent to 80,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 69,000 gallons per acre per day. From June 15 to June 26 it was dosed once daily three times a week, at a rate of 80,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 34,000 gallons per acre per day. From June 27 to July 24 the dose was equivalent to 40,000 gallons per acre six times a week, a net rate of 34,000 gallons per acre per day. From July 25 to August 8 the dose was equivalent to 80,000 gallons per acre six times a week, a net rate of 69,000 gallons per acre per day. From August 8 to September 1 the dose was applied three times a week at the rate of 80,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 34,000 gallons per acre per day. From September 12 to November 26 the dose was at the rate of 60,000 gallons three times a week, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day. Surface clogging was apparent on July 31, and on August 5 about one-quarter inch of the surface sand was removed. During the latter part of August the filter was not disposing of the dose satisfactorily, and though it had not received a dose for ten days the filter was still wet on September 11. A considerable depth of very black sand with a slimy coating on top at that time necessitated removal of about 3 inches of sand near the perimeter and about 8 inches at the center, after which the filter was

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leveled and resurfaced with 6 inches of new sand. By November 26 the sand had become nearly black for a depth of 8 inches, except at the center, where it was dark-colored for a depth of 2½ feet. Otherwise the filter was in good condition.

Filter No. 6 was dosed with the raw liquor twice a day six times a week from July 13 to August 21, with an amount equivalent to 10,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 17,000 gallons per acre per day; and once daily six times a week from August 22 to September 27 and from October 7 to October 11, at the rate of 30,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day. From October 12 to November 26 septic liquor was applied at the rate of 60,000 gallons per acre three times a week, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day. On September 11 a slimy deposit on the sand was found to retard the operation of the filter, but the film was not disturbed. On September 27 the deposit was found to be so much thicker that dosing was discontinued till October 7, when the surface had become thoroughly dry. On October 11 practically all the previous dose was still on the filter; after the surface seal had been broken in order to allow the liquid to drain into the filter, 3 inches of dark-colored, slimy sand was removed. The considerable amount of discolored sand that was left was mixed with a trowel, and 3 inches of new sand was put on the surface. Though septic liquor was applied instead of raw liquor after that experience, the rate of filtration had become materially decreased at the end of October and the sand did not become dry between doses. On November 13 the surface of the sand was discolored and slimy and filter was not dry. On November 26 the sand was very dark-colored at the surface, and nearly black between 6 and 12 inches in depth, but the rest of the sand was in good condition.

Filter No. 7 was dosed twice a day six times a week, from July 13 to August 21, at the rate of 10,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 17,000 gallons per acre per day; and from August 22 throughout the operation of the filter it was dosed twice a week at the rate of 90,000 gallons per acre, a net rate of 26,000 gallons per acre per day. The surface of the filter received no attention except on September 11, when the sand was leveled on account of a depression in the middle. On November 26 the sand was in good condition and clean for about 2 feet below the surface, then for about 1 foot it was slightly discolored. Below that layer the sand was in good condition.

Results of experimental work.—Table 39 presents a summary of the analytical results of work at Saylesville, together with the percentage removals of organic matter effected by the different filters; the averages of the analyses of raw and septic liquor are used as the bases of the computations. The rates of filtration and some other essential data are also included.

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TABLE 39.—*Summary of results of purification experiments, Saylesville, R. I.*

Source of sample; effluent from—	Number of samples analyzed.	Source of applied liquor.	Number of doses weekly.	Dose per acre.	Net rate per acre per day.	Organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Organic nitrogen and free ammonia.	Oxygen consumed.	Percentage removal based on organic nitrogen.	Percentage removal based on organic nitrogen and nitrogen as free ammonia.	Percentage removal based on oxygen consumed.
				Gallons.	*Gallons.*	*Milligrams per liter.*	*Milligrams per liter.*	*Milligrams per liter.*	*Milligrams per liter.*			
Storage tank	13	Lime and caustic boils.				196	4	200	4,570			
Septic tank	13	Storage tank				183	8	191	3,330	7	5	27
Filter No. 1 [a]	3	Septic tank		70,000	50,000	135	6	141	2,300	26	26	31
Filter No. 2 [a]	1	do		120,000	85,000	201	5	206	4,340	[b] 10	[b] 8	[b] 30
Do. [c]	2	do		650,000	560,000	194	3	197	3,210	[b] 6	[b] 3	4
Filter No. 3 [d]	2	do	3	40,000	17,000	31	1	32	589	83	83	82
Do. [d]	12	do	6	20,000	17,000	39	26	65	355	79	66	89
Do. [d]	3	do	6	40,000	34,000	57	9	66	747	69	65	78
Filter No. 4 [d]	2	do	6	40,000	34,000	36	2	38	1,280	80	80	61
Do. [d]	2	do	3	60,000	26,000	70	6	76	1,310	62	60	61
Do. [d]	13	do	6	30,000	26,000	64	38	102	594	65	47	82
Filter No. 5 [d]	4	do	6	80,000	69,000	78	24	102	1,198	57	47	64
Do. [d]	4	do	3	80,000	34,000	87	27	114	1,134	52	40	67
Do. [d]	2	do	6	40,000	34,000	105	56	161	955	43	16	71
Do. [e]	6	do	3	60,000	26,000	58	25	83	433	68	57	87
Filter No. 6 [d]	4	Storage tank	12	10,000	17,000	51	7	58	871	74	71	81
Do. [d]	5	do	6	30,000	26,000	37	26	63	365	81	69	92
Do. [e]	3	Septic tank	3	60,000	26,000	57	15	72	627	69	62	81
Filter No. 7 [d]	4	do	12	10,000	17,000	74	9	83	1,066	60	57	68
Do. [d]	8	do	2	90,000	26,000	42	22	64	330	77	67	90

[a] Operated as a trickling coke filter.
[b] Increase.
[c] Operated as a contact coke filter.
[d] Operated as an intermittent sand filter.
[e] After resurfacing.

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The unsatisfactory work done by filters Nos. 1 and 2, operating as trickling coke and as contact filters, warrants their exclusion from any further consideration; the best purification accomplished by filter No. 1, operated as a trickling filter at the low rate of 50,000 gallons per acre per day and dosed with septic liquor, showed the removal of only about 30 per cent of the organic matter. The work done by the intermittent sand filters showed variations which were dependent on the changes in the rates and on the general condition of the filters in respect to clogging. The following conclusions seem warranted, after a careful consideration of all phases of the question:

1. Filtration of the raw liqour from the storage tank gives good removal for a time, but the bed soon becomes clogged. The use of the septic tank is desirable, for it insures a better general condition of the filters although the quality of the effluent may be somewhat inferior.

2. The septic period used in this work—about sixteen hours—seems to be satisfactory. Occasional seeding of the tank with fresh sewage sludge would probably improve the action.

3. The use of rates exceeding 26,000 gallons per acre per day appears to reduce the efficiency of the filters and renders their effluents unsatisfactory. Clogging of the surface results in a comparatively short time.

4. It is better to apply the liquor to the filters in large doses with long intermediate intervals rather than in smaller doses more frequently. This is emphasized by the satisfactory work and condition of filter No. 7 during a four months' run. The occasional removal of a few inches of sand and resurfacing maintains a satisfactory condition of filter and effluent.

5. No oxidation to nitrites and nitrates can be expected in filtration of this waste at the rates used.

6. The liquor can be filtered after septic treatment with good results (80 to 85 per cent removal of organic matter), at rates approximating 25,000 gallons per acre per day by dosing the beds with 90,000 gallons twice a week. If the net rate of filtration is maintained at 20,000 gallons per acre per day, over 85 per cent removal of organic matter is effected.

ESTIMATES OF COST.

The approximate cost of a purification plant to treat lime-boil and caustic-boil liquors, and the cost of its maintenance, are shown in the following tables. The estimates apply to a plant including a storage or equalizing tank, a septic tank, and intermittent sand filters capable of treating 60,000 gallons a day. They are based on the costs of several sewage-treatment plants in New England.

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TABLE 40.—*Estimates of cost of installing kier-boil liquor treatment plant.*

Rate of filtration in gallons per acre per day.	Filtration area.	Total cost.	Cost per 1,000 gallons of daily capacity.
	Acres.		
15,000	4.0	$20,000	$330
20,000	3.0	16,000	270
25,000	2.4	13,600	230
30,000	2.0	12,000	200

TABLE 41.—*Estimates of annual maintenance costs for kier-boil liquor treatment plant.*

Rate of filtration in gallons per acre per day	15,000	20,000	25,000	30,000
Interest on investment	$1,000	$800	$680	$600
Depreciation and repairs	$840	$820	$800	$780
Labor	$640	$480	$380	$320
	$2,480	$2,100	$1,860	$1,700
Cost per 1,000 gallons ... cents	13.8	11.7	10.3	9.5

The foregoing estimates are believed to cover all usual cases and they can probably be reduced considerably for most installations.

SUMMARY.

Bleaching processes give rise to the discharge of great quantities of waste waters which are undesirable additions to streams.

The dilute mixed waste waters have been partly purified in practice in England and experimentally in Massachusetts. These installations indicate that sedimentation, precipitation, and septic treatment are satisfactory only as preliminary processes; that the degree of purification increases in the order in which the processes are named; and that the best secondary treatment is bacterial filtration, chlorine solutions being excluded. Sprinkling filters and sand filters have done satisfactory work, but contact filters have proved unsatisfactory.

The investigations of the authors show that 1 per cent of the entire volume of waste waters contains about 40 per cent of the mineral pollution and 65 per cent of the organic pollution from a bleachery. This small portion of the waste consists of the waste kier liquors produced by boiling the unbleached cloth with caustic soda or caustic lime. If the waters derived from rinsing the cloth after boiling are included, 15 per cent of the total volume of waste waters contains 61 per cent of the mineral and 98 per cent of the organic pollution from a bleachery.

Laboratory experiments indicate that neutralization of the concentrated kier liquors by acid produces a voluminous precipitate but results in little actual purification. The lime sludge from the chloride of lime solution tanks precipitates lime-boil liquors and removes about

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one-third of the volatile solids, but such treatment is ineffective for caustic-boil liquors.

Field experiments on mixed kier liquors covering a period of six months indicate that septic treatment followed by sand filtration at rates not exceeding 30,000 gallons per acre per day removes 80 to 85 per cent of the organic matter that the waste contains. This is accompanied by still greater reduction of the polluting qualities and by marked improvement in the appearance of the liquor, probably rendering it incapable of causing a nuisance even in a small stream. The cost of this treatment amounts to about 10 cents per 1,000 gallons. In this way 50 to 55 per cent of the organic matter in all wastes from the bleachery may be removed at a cost of about 0.1 cent per 1,000 gallons.

THE MANUFACTURE OF OLEOMARGARINE, FERTILIZER, AND GLUE.

PROCESSES AND WASTE WATERS.

Oleomargarine and other butter substitutes are made from mixtures of animal and vegetable oils. Tallow and lard, the most important sources of stock, are contained in membranous cells which soon putrefy and cause the fats to become rancid. Therefore the stock is washed and cooled with water and rendered to obtain an oil free from animal tissue. The rendering is usually accomplished by digestion with steam under about 50 pounds pressure in iron containers. The cell walls are broken down and the melted fat, which rises above the tissue or "cracklings" and the water, can be decanted. The impure water is discharged as sewage or utilized for recovery of valuable materials.

A large amount of fertilizer is made from slaughterhouse wastes, such as blood, waste meat, bones, hoofs, hair, tainted meat, diseased animals, and tankage or residue from rendering and glue-making processes. In converting these substances into commercial fertilizer, blood is dried at a moderate heat and crushed to powder; bones may be ground without preliminary treatment, or they may be treated with a volatile solvent or boiled with steam to remove fats and gelatin and then ground for fertilizer; and tankage is dried, powdered, and mixed with other fertilizing material. The valuable ingredients sought for in all stock are nitrogen, potassium, and phosphorus.

Glue is prepared from animal tissues, which on heating with water lose their structure, swell up, and finally go into solution. When they become cool, such solutions form a jelly which dries into the hard translucent mass known as glue. The raw material includes hide trimmings, "skivings," "fleshings," and other untanned refuse of the tannery; earlaps, heads, feet, tails, and other slaughterhouse

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offal; and "green" or fresh bones. Green bones are used in manufacturing "bone glue;" the other materials are used for the production of "hide glue."

The stock for hide glue is salted, washed, and then mixed with milk of lime and allowed to stand for several weeks. The liming softens and swells the tissues, converts the fats into lime soaps, and dissolves a large part of the blood, flesh, coriin and other matters which will not form glue. The material is then washed in water and acid. The sewage from liming and washing is largely used for fertilizer.

Bone glue is not essentially different from hide glue. The fatty matters are removed from the fresh bones by boiling with water and skimming or by extracting with a volatile solvent. The bones are then crushed and treated with dilute acids to remove calcium phosphate and other salts, which are valuable as fertilizers. Washing with lime water removes traces of acid.

The stock for bone or hide glue, having been cleansed by the treatment just described, is boiled with water or steamed in a digester until practically all the glue-forming material has been dissolved. Several successive boilings may be used. The glue solution is filtered, evaporated to the desired consistency in a vacuum pan, and run into trays in which it cools and forms a jelly, which is cut into plates and dried for market.

It may be seen from the foregoing description that the industries of making oleomargarine, fertilizer, and glue are closely allied. The raw materials are the wastes from slaughterhouses and markets. The processes, however, vary greatly in different establishments. In one plant utilizing these raw materials attention may be given to the manufacture of a single product. In another plant all by-products may be taken into account and the sewage or waste waters from one process may be utilized to the fullest extent as raw materials for the manufacture of a secondary product. A detailed description of processes would not, therefore, be of general application, and variation in concentration and in difficulty of purification of waste waters is to be expected with variation in processes and products of manufacture. The L. B. Darling Fertilizer Company, at whose establishment experimental work was conducted, attempts to recover the greatest possible amount of valuable material from the stock that is used; consequently, the waste waters are small in quantity and low in concentration as compared with the sewage from plants that are less economically operated.

Practically the only waste from this plant, and the waste that was used in the experimental work, was the discharge over a weir in the last of a series of boxes, or tanks, through which a waste liquor was passed for the purpose of increasing the recovery of fat and animal

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tissue by gathering the scum and the sediment. This liquor is a waste from "tankage," and the greater part of the fatty matter has been taken from it before it is run into the boxes. The writers have found no account of experimental filtration of a waste similar to that from the series of skimming tanks. It is a putrescible, ill-smelling liquor, very high in organic matter in solution and in suspension, both carbonaceous and nitrogenous. The nitrogen content is enormous, because of the animal composition of the materials used at the plant. It is extremely high in bacterial life, the number of organisms per cubic centimeter being invariably in the millions. The average for ten samples is 13,800,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter. Other characteristics are high turbidity, very great sediment, and a dirty-brown color.

Analyses of samples of this waste show that it is extremely variable in strength. Twelve samples give an average figure for organic nitrogen of 979 parts per million, and for oxygen consumed of 988 parts per million. The detailed analyses are given in Table 42.

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TABLE 42.—*Analyses of waste water from factory of L. B. Darling Fertilizer Company.*

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Time.	Residue on evaporation.			Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Total organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Fats.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.
		Total.	Loss on ignition.	Fixed.			Nitrates.	Nitrites.			
1907.											
April 24	11.00 a. m.	5,744	4,836	908	79	500	.....	.....	500	575	.....
May 28	(a)	7,596	6,604	992	123	726	.....	.....	475	1,240	25,000,000
July 22	11.30 a. m.	[b] 5,046 [c] 3,598	[b] 4,344 [c] 2,961	[b] 702 [c] 637	105	[b] 386 [c] 259	0.00 (?)	2.000	[b] 470 [c] 340	1,996	13,300,000
August 8	10.00 a. m.	[b] 13,332 [c] 11,824	[b] 11,468 [c] 10,148	[b] 1,864 1,676	254	1,916	.....	.000	1,150	.....	18,000,000
August 20	a. m.	.....	.....	.....	170	1,310	Trace (?)	.000	990	.....	13,500,000
August 28	10.30 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	209	1,036	Trace (?)	2.000	1,380	.....	4,400,000
September 11	10.00 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	248	603	.00 (?)	2.400	440	.....	13,800,000
September 18	10.00 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	108	660	.....	.....	745	.....	7,000,000
October 10	10.00 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	117	962	.....	.....	990	.....	16,500,000
October 17	10.00 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	166	1,332	.00 (?)	2.400	1,910	.....	18,800,000
November 1	9.45 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	172	1,434	.....	.....	1,600	.....	.....
November 13	10.30 a. m.	.....	.....	.....	127	886	.50 (?)	2.000	1,200	.....	7,900,000

[a] Composite of samples taken hourly from 8 a. m. to 6 p. m., inclusive. [b] Unfiltered. [c] Filtered.

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EXPERIMENTAL PURIFICATION OF WASTES.

OPERATION OF PURIFICATION PLANT.

Sand filtration without preliminary treatment was conducted from July 26 to November 14, 1907. Two galvanized-iron filters, 20 inches in diameter, were kept in operation, out of doors and uncovered, throughout the period. Both filters contained 4½ feet of sand, having an effective size of 0.23 millimeters and a uniformity coefficient of 3.4. Three or four inches of fine cinders, not screened and containing a little dust, supported the sand, and these cinders in turn rested on 8 or 10 inches of larger cinders.

Filter No. 1 was started at the rate of approximately 20,000 gallons per acre per day. This dose, applied once a day for six days in the week, was continued till August 21, when it was increased to 100,000 gallons a day. The dose was made 40,000 gallons a day on September 12, and it was decreased to the original dose of 20,000 gallons a day on October 22. The surface of the filter was not raked during the run, except when removals of sand were made, at which time the surface was leveled before dosing the filter was resumed. The behavior of this filter demonstrated that surface clogging occurs at any of the rates that were tried and that the interval between cleanings is dependent on the size of the dose, being necessarily more frequent with the higher rates. While the rate of dosing was 100,000 gallons a day the filters clogged so badly that it was difficult to apply the entire dose from day to day, because so much of the previous dose was left on the filter that there was not room above the sand for more liquor.

The condition of the surface finally became so bad, the sand being discolored and covered with a slimy deposit, that it became necessary, on September 11, to remove about 1½ inches of the sand on top. No new sand was put on, but the surface was leveled. Dosing was resumed, but at the rate of 40,000 gallons. The same condition of slow drying soon developed, and conditions became such that the surface would not dry from day to day. Consequently a slimy layer about one-eighth inch thick, which sealed the surface, together with half an inch of the top sand, was removed on October 21, and the surface was leveled after the top layer of 3 to 4 inches had been mixed. No new sand was put on, and dosing was resumed at the 20,000-gallon rate. By the middle of November surface clogging was again apparent, and the filter was gradually approaching the condition noted on previous occasions. When the filter was dismantled on December 13 dosing had been discontinued about ten days. The sand was clean in appearance, there being little discoloration. The clogging was caused by a surface deposit, grayish in color, and not more than one-sixteenth to one-eighth inch thick after it had dried into the top sand.

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Filter No. 2 was started at a rate of 60,000 gallons an acre. Dosing once daily for six days a week was continued until October 22. From that date until the dismantling of the filter the dose was applied every other day at the rate of 40,000 gallons per acre per day, making the net rate for the latter period 20,000 gallons per acre per day. An inch of sand was removed from the surface of the filter on September 11, after which dosing was resumed without putting on new sand. Sand was again removed on October 21, as a slimy layer about one-eighth inch thick was sealing the surface at this time. This top layer and about one-half inch of sand was removed; the surface was then leveled, and after the top layer of 3 to 4 inches of sand had been mixed dosing was resumed without putting on new sand. The conditions after that date were similar to those existing in filter No. 1, and the appearance of the sand when the filter was dismantled on December 13 was much the same as that of the sand in the other filter.

When the experiments were discontinued samples of sand were collected from both filters at the top inch, at 6 inches down, and at the bottom. The results of tests for albuminoid ammonia and loss on ignition on these samples are given in Table 43. They confirm what was noticed regarding the satisfactory condition of the sand below the surface at the time of dismantling. The analyses of the samples from the top inch indicate the presence of a large amount of nitrogenous organic matter in the clogging film.

TABLE 43.—*Partial analyses of sands after use in filtration.*

Source of sample.	Albuminoid ammonia.	Loss on ignition.
	Milligrams per liter.	*Per cent.*
Filter No. 1:		
Top inch	[a] 3,156	12.1
6 inches down	145	.67
Bottom	87	.47
Filter No. 2:		
Top inch	2,262	7.3
6 inches down	147	.57
Bottom	124	.51

[a] Probably too low.

The quality of the effluents from the filters, as determined by analyses of samples taken at about 10 a. m., is shown in Table 44.

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TABLE 44.—*Analyses of effluents from filters Nos. 1 and 2 at the establishment of the L. B. Darling Fertilizer Company.*

FROM FILTER NO. 1.

[Milligrams per liter.]

Date.	Appearance.			Odor.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Total organic nitrogen.	Nitrogen as—		Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.	Net rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day).
	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.				Nitrates.	Nitrites.			
1907.											
August 1	Decided	Very heavy (iron).	Red	Distinctly unpleasant.	119	67.2	1.00(?)	Trace.	68.0	.....	20,000
August 8[a]	Slight	Heavy (iron)	Iron	do	320	35.7	Trace (?)	0.50 (?)	62.0	50,000	20,000
August 20	Decided	Slight (iron)	Very light brown.	do	502	11.5	Trace (?)	5.500	36.0	140,000	20,000
August 28	Great (iron)	do	Red (iron)	Decidedly unpleasant.	420	14.8	Trace (?)	.000	50.0	38,000	100,000
September 11	Very great (iron)	Heavy (iron)	Red	Distinctly unpleasant.	895	41.5	(?)	.000	87.0	20,000	100,000
September 18	do	do	Red (iron)	do	699	17.9	.00(?)	.000	109.0	500,000	40,000
October 10	do	do	Red	Faintly unpleasant	701	52.8	.00(?)	.000	135.0	310,000	40,000
October 17	Decided (iron)	Considerable (iron).	do	Distinctly unpleasant.	527	24.8	.00(?)	.000	118.0	400,000	40,000
November 1	Very decided	None	Reddish brown	Decidedly unpleasant.	661	43.5	1.00(?)	.000	150.0	.....	20,000
November 13	do	do	do	Distinctly unpleasant.	624	25.9	.50(?)	.000(?)	130.0	190,000	20,000

FROM FILTER NO. 2.

Date.	Turbidity.	Sediment.	Color.	Odor.	Nitrogen as free ammonia.	Total organic nitrogen.	Nitrates.	Nitrites.	Oxygen consumed.	Number of bacteria per cubic centimeter.	Net rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day).
1907.											
August 1	Decided	Heavy	Turbid	Distinctly unpleasant.	271	46.7	0.50(?)	Trace.	54.0	.....	60,000
August 8[b]	Slight	Heavy (iron)	Iron	Distinctly unpleasant and moldy.	509	12.7	Trace (?)	0.050(?)	46.0	40,000	60,000
August 20	do	do	Red (iron)	Distinctly unpleasant.	626	10.7	Trace (?)	.000	65.0	40,000	60,000
August 28	Great (iron)	Slight (iron)	do	Decidedly unpleasant.	831	26.9	Trace (?)	.000	86.0	1,400,000	60,000
September 11	Decided (iron)	Considerable (iron).	Light brown	Distinctly unpleasant.	536	14.4	(?)	.000	70.0	4,200,000	60,000
September 18	Decided	Very slight	do	do	710	17.7	.00(?)	.000	110.0	450,000	60,000
October 10	Very great (iron)	Heavy (iron)	Red	Faintly unpleasant	560	12.8	.00(?)	.040	72.0	1,000,000	60,000
October 17	Decided (iron)	Considerable (iron).	do	Distinctly unpleasant.	740	19.7	.00(?)	.000	118.0	4,900,000	60,000
November 1	Very decided	None	Reddish brown	Decidedly unpleasant.	822	29.2	1.00(?)	.020(?)	150.0	.....	20,000
November 13	Decided	do	Yellowish brown	Distinctly unpleasant.	658	22.0	.70(?)	.000(?)	115.0	400,000	20,000

[a] Residue on evaporation: Total, 1,486; fixed, 1,064; loss on ignition, 422.

[b] Residue on evaporation: Total, 1,908; fixed, 1,268; loss on ignition, 640.

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Experiments were made with the object of coagulating the waste with chemicals in order to obtain a decided removal of organic matter before filtration, but the results were not satisfactory. The addition of aluminum sulphate resulted in excellent clarification on several occasions, but at other times the coagulum had no effect whatever, and the addition of soda ash did not aid coagulation. Copperas and lime also were tried, but the results were not encouraging.

RESULTS OF FILTRATION.

A summary of the determinations of organic nitrogen, organic nitrogen plus free ammonia, and oxygen consumed for the filter effluents, together with the percentage of removal by filtration represented by these estimates, is given in Table 45.

TABLE 45.—*Summary of results of filtration at the establishment of the L. B. Darling Fertilizer Company.*

Source of sample.	Number of samples analyzed.	Number of doses weekly.	Net rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day, approximately).	Milligrams per liter.			Percentage of removal.[a]					
				Organic nitrogen.	Organic nitrogen + free ammonia.	Oxygen consumed.	Organic nitrogen.		Organic nitrogen + free ammonia.		Oxygen consumed.	
							A.	B.	A.	B.	A.	B.
Crude waste	12	.....	.....	979	1,136	988	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Effluent, filter 1	3	6	20,000	38	352	55	96	97	69	74	94	94
Do	2	6	100,000	28	686	69	97	97	40	34	93	92
Do	3	6	40,000	32	674	121	97	97	41	40	88	88
Do	2	6	20,000	35	678	140	96	97	40	48	86	90
Effluent, filter 2	8	6	60,000	20	618	78	98	98	46	49	92	92
Do	2	3	20,000	26	766	133	98	98	33	42	86	90

[a] Columns A are calculated from the average of 12 samples of crude waste as a basis, but columns B are calculated from the samples of crude waste that were collected when the corresponding samples of filter effluent were taken.

The figures for percentage of removal, based on the estimates of organic nitrogen and oxygen consumed under widely different rates of filtration, are almost uniformly high. The decomposition of organic nitrogen is nearly the same in all cases, but the completeness of the oxidation, indicated by free ammonia, varies, showing some advantages in favor of the lower rates of filtration. The operation and the condition of the filters themselves are the proper sources of information regarding the best rates to use.

A high percentage of removal of organic matter can be effected by filters, but constant attention to the surface of the sand, with frequent scraping and ultimate addition of new sand, would be necessary. It is doubtful whether, with the rate as low as 20,000 gallons, filters would do satisfactory work longer than five or six weeks unless attention were given to the surface. It is possible that a rate of

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60,000 gallons could be used, but conditions requiring slight sand removal in less time than a month would probably result. If attention were not given to the surface when needed, a nuisance would probably result from the odors given off by the putrid waste, but if the surface were kept fairly open, thus allowing the liquor to get quickly below the surface, such trouble might be avoided. Preliminary filtration at a rate of about 60,000 gallons, followed by a second filtration at the same or even a little higher rate, would give excellent results.

It would be advisable to construct near the filters a storage or dosing tank capable of holding one day's flow, in order to avoid the necessity of continual discharge on the surface of the sand. Considerable sediment and scum would, of course, collect in the storage tank, and the supernatant liquor would not clog the sand nearly so rapidly as the waste itself. The interval between scrapings would also be longer, and the accumulated scum and sediment could be treated like the material now recovered in the series of tanks. If filtration were interrupted by severe winter weather, such conditions would prevail only for a comparatively short period and that at a time when the crude waste would do least damage to a stream. The waste liquor, even then, would be considerably reduced in strength by sedimentation in the storage tank, which would increase the organic matters returned for utilization.

COSTS OF FILTRATION.

Table 46 gives estimates of the costs of installation, operation, and maintenance of a plant for purifying tank waste from establishments similar to that of the L. B. Darling Fertilizer Company. The estimates are based on the results of experiments with the waste from the factory just mentioned. The installation provides for sand filtration and for a tank for storing one day's supply of liquor, 25,000 gallons.

TABLE 46.—*Estimates of cost of plant for filtering tank waste.*

Net rate of filtration (gallons per acre per day).	Filtration area.	Cost of plant.	Annual cost of maintenance and operation.	Cost per 1,000 gallons.
	Acres.			*Cents.*
10,000	2.50	$11,000	$2,200	29.3
20,000	1.25	6,000	1,200	16.0
40,000	.625	3,500	700	9.3
60,000	.417	2,700	540	7.2
100,000	.250	2,000	400	5.3

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The cost of operation and maintenance is based on fixed charges of 15 per cent of the cost of the plant for interest, repairs, and depreciation, and 5 per cent for labor. This makes ample allowance for the high concentration of the waste, for usually the charges are about 11 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively, for sewage-treatment plants of this type. The tank capacity that is provided allows for considerable sedimentation and for a dosing tank.

EVAPORATION—RECOVERY TREATMENT OF WASTES.

VALUE OF RECOVERED PRODUCT.

Table 47 gives estimates of the fertilizing value of the products obtained by evaporating and drying 25,000 gallons of tank waste daily. The unit values for nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash are those proposed by the Massachusetts agricultural experiment station.[a]

TABLE 47.—*Estimated value of products obtained by evaporating and drying tank waste.*

VALUES BASED ON A COMPOSITE SAMPLE COLLECTED JUNE 16, 1908.

	Milligrams per liter.	Pounds per 1,000 gallons.	Value per pound.	Value per 1,000 gallons.	Value per day.
Organic nitrogen (N)	595	4.96	$0.185	$0.918	$22.94
Phosphoric acid (P_2O_5)	106	.88	.05	.044	1.10
Potash as K_2O	126	1.05	.05	.052	1.31
Total solids	5,300	44.2	.023	1.014	25.35
Volatile solids	4,190	34.9	.026	.918	22.94
Fixed solids	1,110	9.3	.010	.096	2.41

VALUES BASED ON AN AVERAGE OF TWO COMPOSITE SAMPLES AND A MEAN OF 11 SNAP SAMPLES.

Organic nitrogen (N)	774	6.45	$0.185	$1.195	$29.88
Phosphoric acid (P_2O_5)	[a] 138	1.15	.050	.058	1.44
Potash as K_2O	[a] 164	1.37	.050	.068	1.71
Total solids	[a] 6,900	57.5	.023	1.321	33.03
Volatile solids	[a] 5,450	45.4	.026	1.195	29.88
Fixed solids	[a] 1,450	12.1	.010	.126	3.15

[a] Estimated from ratio to nitrogen in sample of June 16, 1908.

This shows the value of the waste based on the average to be $1.32 per 1,000 gallons.

COST OF TREATMENT.

The next natural question is the cost of installation of a complete independent plant operating ten hours a day and a similar estimate for the plant probably required as an addition to a factory. These figures are as follows:

[a] Bull. No. 51, March, 1894.

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Estimated cost of plant for evaporating and drying 25,000 gallons of tank waste daily.

Complete independent plant:	
Boilers and setting, flues, stack, feed pumps, coal pocket, piping, and heaters	$8,000
Evaporator (triple-effect)	10,000
Dryer	500
Building	3,500
Incidentals	2,000
	24,000
Plant probably required as an addition to a factory:	
Boilers and setting, flues, feed pumps, piping, and heaters	5,400
Evaporator (triple-effect)	10,000
Building	1,000
Incidentals	1,500
	17,900

The cost of operation of both of the above-described plants, the complete plant and the probable addition to the existing plant, is of course the figure to determine the practicability of the recovery process as applied to the waste. These estimates are as follows:

Estimated cost of operation of plant for evaporating and drying 25,000 gallons of tank waste daily.

Complete independent plant:	
Fixed charges (11 per cent)	$2,607.00
Attendance ($33 per week)	1,716.00
Coal (1,500 tons, at $4.50)	6,750.00
Supplies	227.00
Total annual cost	11,300.00
Cost per day	37.67
Cost per 1,000 gallons	1.51
Plant probably required as an addition to a factory:	
Fixed charges (11 per cent)	1,969.00
Attendance ($17 per week)	884.00
Coal (1,500 tons, at $4.50)	6,750.00
Supplies	227.00
Total annual cost	9,830.00
Cost per day	32.77
Cost per 1,000 gallons	1.31

CONCLUSIONS.

As the value of the waste per 1,000 gallons and the estimated cost of operating the plant which would be required as an addition are practically identical, evaporation would just about pay for itself at this plant were the strength of the waste maintained at about total solids—6,900 parts per million and organic nitrogen 774 parts per million.

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Reference to Table 47 shows that an increase of 52 parts per million in total solids adds 1 per cent per 1,000 gallons to the value of the waste. If, therefore, the more dilute portions could be diverted and only the more concentrated liquor used in the evaporation plant, a small profit would undoubtedly be obtained. The figures for the complete independent plant indicate that a waste containing 7,900 parts per million total solids would be valued at $1.51 per 1,000 gallons, or the cost of operation of this plant. Thus a waste of greater strength than the one just mentioned and of the same character as that with which the experiments were made could be handled with a margin of profit in an independent plant.

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INDEX.

A. Page.

Acknowledgments to those aiding..... 5–6
Alkali, use of, in scouring..... 6–7
See also Potash; Scouring liquor.
Ammonia, proportion of, in sand from filters. 56

B.

Battage process, description of..... 21

C.

Carbon disulphide, use of, in scouring..... 8
Carbon tetrachloride, use of, in scouring..... 8
Caustic-boil liquor, character of..... 48
filtration of, results of..... 49–60
purification of..... 46–60
cost of..... 60–61
septic treatment of, result of..... 48–49, 59, 62
Cooperation, plan for..... 5
Copperas, use of, in purifying wool dye liquors..... 32
Cotton piece goods, bleaching of..... 41–43, 61
bleaching of, processes of..... 41–43
wastes from..... 43, 61
analyses of..... 43
purification of..... 43–62
See also Purification plant.
See also Lime-boil; Caustic boil.
Cotton yarn, bleaching of..... 27–28
bleaching of, wastes from..... 28–29
wastes from, analyses of..... 29
purification of..... 32–41
cleansing of..... 27
dyeing of..... 29–30
wastes from..... 30–31
analyses of..... 31, 36, 37, 38, 39
filtration of..... 36–39
cost of..... 39–40
purification of..... 32–41
Cotton, susceptibility of, to acids..... 27
Cracking process, description of..... 17–20

D.

Darling (L. B.) Fertilizer Co., plant of..... 63
De gras, description of..... 18
manufacture of, wastes from..... 18–19
Diazotizing, use of..... 30

E.

England, purification in..... 20, 44–45

F. Page.

Ferrocyanide, production of..... 11, 12
Fertilizer, manufacture of..... 62
manufacture of, wastes from..... 63–64
wastes from, analyses of..... 65
filtration of..... 66–69
cost of..... 70–71
results of..... 68, 69–70
analyses of..... 68
sand from, analyses of..... 67
recovery from, cost of..... 71, 72–73
value of..... 71–72
Fischer, F., on recovery of potash..... 10
Flekkel, —, on recovery of potash..... 10

G.

Glue, manufacture of..... 62–63
See also Fertilizer.
Gray boil, description of..... 27
waste from, analyses of..... 33
purification of..... 33–34
See also Cotton yarns.
Grease, recovery of..... 21–22

H.

Havrez, P., on production of ferrocyanide... 11

L.

Leighton, M. O., supervision of..... 5
Lime, dye liquors treated by..... 34
Lime-boil liquor, character of..... 48
filtration of, results of..... 49–60
purification of..... 46–60
cost of..... 60–61
septic treatment of, results of..... 48–49, 59
Lorraine Manufacturing Co., recovery at.... 18

M.

Mason (R. D.) Co. plant, wastes of, analyses of..... 29, 36, 37–39
wastes of, character of..... 35–36
filtration of..... 36–39
cost of..... 39–40
Massachusetts, purification in..... 45–46
Mordants, use of..... 30

N.

Naylor, W., on cotton bleaching..... 44–34
on recovery of potash..... 10, 20

Digitized by Google

O. Page.

Oleomargarine, manufacture of..... 62
Olive-oil soap, use of, in scouring..... 7

P.

Pawtucket, R. I., experiments at..... 35–40
Petroleum-naphtha, use of, in scouring..... 8
Pontusac mill, wastes at, analyses of..... 21
Potash, recovery of..... 7, 9, 12, 17, 22, 25
recovery of, costs of..... 10–11
use of, in scouring..... 7
Potash, recovered, analyses of..... 9–10
value of..... 10–11
Pratt, G. H., work of..... 5
Purification plant, cost of..... 60–61
description of..... 47
operation of..... 47–58

R.

Recovery. *See* Potash; Soap; Scouring liquor.
Rhode Island, cooperation of..... 5
Richardson, F. W., analyses of..... 23
Rinse water, sewage from..... 13
sewage from, purification of..... 13
See also Wools.

S.

Saylesville, R. I., purification experiments at. 47–61
Scouring. *See* Wools.
Scouring liquor, analyses of..... 13
contents of, recovery of..... 17–26
recovery of, cost and value of..... 24–26
disposal of..... 22
origin of..... 6–7
purification of..... 14–17, 26
treatment of..... 14–26
Sedimentation, treatment of scouring liquor by..... 15–17
Sewage. *See* Wool sewage.
Sewage treatment, purification by..... 14–17, 32–33
Smith-Leach process, description of..... 21–24
economy of..... 24–26

Page.

Soap, use of, in scouring..... 6–7
See also Scouring liquor.
Sodium, effect of, on wool..... 7
Stabler, Herman, on wool-dye liquors..... 32–33
work of..... 5
Steeping. *See* Wools.
Steep water, substances recovered from..... 9–11
treatment of..... 8–9
Sulphuric acid, use of, in purification..... 46
Swarts, G. T., aid of..... 6
supervision of..... 5

T.

Turner-Akeroyd process, description of..... 20–21

V.

Volatile solvents, recovery of..... 8, 12
use of, in scouring..... 8
economy of..... 8
sewage from..... 12–13

W.

Wet-out process, description of..... 29
waste from..... 31
analysis of..... 31
purification of..... 33–34
Wool fat, recovery of..... 7, 8, 17
Wools, dyeing of, waste liquors from..... 32
impurities in..... 6
rinsing of..... 12
scouring of..... 6–26
necessity for..... 6
processes of..... 6–8
See also Scouring liquor.
waste waters from..... 8–13
analyses of..... 16, 19, 21
See also Steep water; Wool sewage.
steeping of..... 7, 8–11
Wool sewage, contents of..... 12–13
purification of, cost of..... 12–26
See also Scouring liquor.

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
GEORGE OTIS SMITH, DIRECTOR

WATER-SUPPLY PAPER 236

THE QUALITY OF SURFACE WATERS IN THE UNITED STATES

PART I.—ANALYSES OF WATERS EAST OF THE ONE HUNDREDTH MERIDIAN

BY

R. B. DOLE

WASHINGTON
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1909

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Introduction	5
Previous investigations	6
History of the present investigation	7
Acknowledgments	8
Methods of examination	9
General discussion	9
Collection of samples	10
Division of composite sample	10
Turbidity	11
Total suspended solids	12
Total dissolved solids	13
Silica	15
Iron	16
Calcium	17
Magnesium	19
Sulphate radicle	20
Sodium and potassium	20
Carbonate and bicarbonate radicles	21
Chlorine	22
Nitrates	22
Total acidity	23
Total iron	23
Preparation of solutions	24
Twentieth-normal potassium permanganate	24
Ammonium acetate	24
Standard sodium ammonium phosphate solution	24
Standard uranium solution	24
Methyl orange	25
Phenolphthalein	25
Fiftieth-normal potassium acid sulphate	25
Potassium chromate solution	25
Standard salt solution	26
Standard silver solution	26
Standard nitrate solution	26
Phenolsulphonic acid	26
Tenth-normal sodium carbonate	26
Departures from regular procedures	27
General departures	27
Analyses of Mississippi River	27
Analyses of Androscoggin River	27
Analyses of southern rivers	28
Probable accuracy of estimates	28
Theoretical limits of accuracy	28
Comparison of the sum and total solids	30

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Probable accuracy of estimates—Continued. Page.
Error of combining values 31
Methods of computation 31
Relation between total solids and percentage of error 34
Relation between source and percentage of error 36
Relation between amount of water and percentage of error 38
Rejection of analyses 38
Method of expressing analytical results 39
Statement in parts per million 39
Statement in ionic form 39
Location of sampling stations 42
Analytical results 46
Index 121

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THE QUALITY OF SURFACE WATERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

PART 1.—ANALYSES OF WATERS EAST OF THE ONE HUNDREDTH MERIDIAN.

By R. B. Dole.

INTRODUCTION.

In the present period of increased scrutiny and careful analysis of the production costs of industrial processes manufacturers are giving more attention than formerly to the quality of water supplies, because water in some form is necessary for the operation of every industrial establishment. During the last twenty years the practical man has been obliged to modify his views, previously limited only by the quantity of available water, by considering the part of his manufacturing cost that is due to the use of water unsuited to his processes. In the adoption of water for domestic supply one of the most important features that affects its value is its potability, which is determined principally by its freedom from dangerous, ill-smelling, or bad-tasting organisms. In the application of water to industrial use, however, biologic features are usually secondary in importance, and the suitability of the supply depends on the amount of mineral matter that is dissolved or suspended in it. This is especially true of waters which are used for steam making, for paper manufacture, and for some other processes. The hygienic quality, as well as the physical and chemical characteristics, must be given due weight in some industries, such as starch making, brewing, distilling, and ice manufacture, but the industrial water problem is primarily a consideration of the mineral substances contained in the supplies. As water dissolves more or less of everything with which it comes in contact, natural waters contain a great variety of matter in solution and in suspension, and their relative purity depends on the locality from which they come. Waters that have percolated through limestone are hard; those that have traversed regions of alkali are alkaline; the run-off from swamps is colored and contains much organic

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matter; the drainage from populated districts is polluted by disease-bearing organisms that render it unpotable. It is essential, therefore, to study the composition of river waters and their adaptability to different industrial processes.

The tremendous importance that the mineral quality of water has attained in these fields led the Geological Survey to undertake a detailed study of the quality of industrial water supplies, both surface and underground, and it became advisable during this investigation to procure information regarding the chemical composition of the waters of the lakes and streams of the United States. This volume, which forms Part 1 of the complete report, presents the detailed results of analyses of surface waters east of the one hundredth meridian. It gives merely the methods of analysis, the location of the sampling stations, and the analytical results, because the demand for the data has been great enough to justify the publication of the analyses before their detailed discussion. Part 2 will discuss the analyses in relation to stream flow, climate, forestation, geologic environment, pollution, and other factors. Another report now in preparation will consider the quality of the waters in special reference to their availability for industrial use, and a paper on chemical denudation in the United States will discuss aqueous erosion in relation to geologic time. For river waters in Illinois only the average chemical composition is given in the present volume, as detailed analyses of the waters from that State, with discussions, are to be included in a separate report.

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS.

A few series of analyses representing samples of water collected systematically from some rivers and lakes in the United States have been published. The greater part of such work, however, has been performed for the purpose of obtaining information regarding the potability of water supplies rather than regarding their availability for industrial use, and as a result of this somewhat one-sided activity the data have reference to inorganic constituents only through determinations that are more or less incidental in sanitary water analysis. Yet the information in work of that character, especially in respect to estimates of total solids, chlorine, hardness, alkalinity, and iron, is valuable in general comparisons and is worth the attention of those who are interested in the mineral characteristics of waters. Especially valuable investigations of this nature have been conducted at Boston, Mass.,[a] Lawrence, Mass.,[b] New Orleans, La.,[c] New York,

[a] Boston Water Board, Ann. Repts., 1880 et seq.
[b] Reports of the Lawrence sewage experiment station.
[c] Sewerage and Water Board Report, New Orleans.

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N. Y.,[a] Louisville, Ky.,[b] Cincinnati, Ohio,[c] St. Louis, Mo.,[d] and in Massachusetts,[e] Ohio,[f] and Illinois.[d]

Several hundred more or less complete analyses of surface waters can be found in the bulletins, water-supply papers, and other reports of the United States Geological Survey, in reports of state geological surveys, in bulletins of agricultural experiment stations, and in publications of scientific societies. Probably a still larger number remain unpublished in the hands of railroad and other industrial chemists, to whom the composition of water supplies is extremely important. All such data, though they are usually excellent in quality and undoubtedly valuable in many respects, are limited in their application, because the small number of samples that were collected from each source make it doubtful whether figures representing even approximately the maximum and minimum conditions of quality were encountered and whether averages of such analyses represent the average chemical composition of the waters considered.

The serial analyses of waters from the Rio Grande at Mesilla, N. Mex., by Goss,[g] and from Colorado River at Yuma and Salt River at Mesa, Ariz., by Forbes and Skinner,[h] deserve separate mention. In 1906 and 1907 series of samples of water from streams in the arid States were analyzed for the Reclamation Service by C. H. Stone and F. M. Eaton under the direction of W. H. Heileman, but the results of that study have not yet been published.

HISTORY OF THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION.

In the spring of 1905 arrangements were effected under which samples of water from Androscoggin River at Brunswick, Me., were collected for a year and analyzed by Prof. F. C. Robinson, of Bowdoin College, and from Mississippi River at New Orleans, La., by J. L. Porter, of the New Orleans Water and Sewerage Board. In the winter of 1905–6 a cooperative agreement between the United States Geological Survey and the State Board of Examiners of California was effected, under which samples of river water were collected at 20 stations in that State, united in sets of ten, and analyzed. This cooperation continued for one year and was resumed in the fall of

[a] Report of the commission on additional water supply of the city of New York, 1904.

[b] Fuller, G. W., Report on the investigations into the purification of the Ohio River water at Louisville, Ky., 1898.

[c] Board of trustees and commissioners of waterworks, Cincinnati: Report on the investigation into the purification of the Ohio River water for the improved water supply for the city of Cincinnati, Ohio, 1899.

[d] Reynolds, A. R., Report of streams examination of the waters between Lake Michigan at Chicago and the Mississippi River at St. Louis, 1902. Long, J. H., Chemical and bacterial examinations of the waters of the Illinois River and its tributaries; report of the sanitary investigations of the Illinois River and its tributaries: Illinois State Board of Health, 1901. Palmer, A. W., Chemical survey of the waters of Illinois: Report for the years 1897-1902, University of Illinois, 1903.

[e] Massachusetts State Board of Health, Ann. Repts., 1890 to date.

[f] Ohio State Board of Health, Ann. Repts., 1898 to date.

[g] Goss, Arthur, Bull. New Mexico Agr. Exper. Sta. No. 34, 1900.

[h] Forbes, R. H., and Skinner, W. W., Bull. Univ. Arizona Agr. Exper. Sta. No. 44, 1902.

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1907, when several new stations were established for daily collection of water samples. Sixty-two stations were established in July, 1906, for the daily collection of samples of water from the principal rivers east of the one hundredth meridian, and arrangements were made for the collection of monthly samples from each of the Great Lakes and from St. Lawrence River. Shortly after that time a cooperative agreement was effected with the Illinois State Water Survey, the State Geological Survey of Illinois, and the engineering department of the University of Illinois for the purpose of investigating the quality of surface waters in that State, and 26 sampling stations were maintained for one year. A similar arrangement was made at the same time with the Kansas State Board of Health and the University of Kansas and 24 stations for the collection of daily samples of river water were maintained in Kansas also for one year. The entire investigation was made under the direction of M. O. Leighton, chief hydrographer of the United States Geological Survey.

The samples collected in the New England, Middle, and East-Central States were shipped to Washington, D. C., where they were analyzed by R. B. Dole, M. G. Roberts, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins, of the Survey. Samples collected in the Southern States were shipped to Athens, Ga., and were analyzed in a branch laboratory at that point by J. R. Evans. When this laboratory was discontinued in May, 1907, part of the samples were transferred to a laboratory maintained at Norfolk, Va., where they were analyzed by W. D. Collins. The analyses of waters from the Middle-Western States, except Illinois and Kansas, were made in a branch laboratory at Iowa City, Iowa, by W. M. Barr, H. S. Spaulding, and Walton Van Winkle. The Illinois analyses were performed in the laboratory of the state water survey at Urbana, Ill., by W. D. Collins and C. K. Calvert. The Kansas samples were shipped to Lawrence, Kans., where they were tested in the laboratory of the University of Kansas by F. W. Bushong and A. J. Weith, under the direction of E. H. S. Bailey. The analyses of waters collected in California during 1906 were made in the Reclamation Service laboratory at Berkeley, by F. M. Eaton and P. L. McCreary, chemists detailed by the Geological Survey. The California analyses during 1907 were made in the same laboratory by Walton Van Winkle. The gage-height data, chiefly from field work under the direction of J. C. Hoyt, were collated by Herman Stabler.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

So much voluntary assistance was accorded this work that reference by name to all the cooperators is impracticable. More than half the daily samples were collected absolutely free of charge under the direction of superintendents of waterworks and by other per-

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sons interested in the work. Special acknowledgment is due to the Weather Bureau, United States Department of Agriculture, for the collection of water samples in South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, and for the privilege of using several series of gage heights. Through the courtesy of the authorities in charge at the University of Iowa and the University of Georgia the Survey was furnished with laboratory space and other facilities for the efficient performance of analytical work. The University of California has furnished quarters for the laboratory at Berkeley since its establishment in the spring of 1905.

The cooperative agreements between the Geological Survey and the state authorities in California, Illinois, and Kansas have made possible much more extended studies of the quality of surface waters in those States than could otherwise have been undertaken.

METHODS OF EXAMINATION.

GENERAL DISCUSSION.

Discussion of the chemical analysis of waters has formed an appreciable part of technical literature for many years, and the subject has been attractive to original investigators everywhere. All sorts of methods for testing water have been recorded in scientific literature, and many of them have survived practical use. It seems, therefore, neither profitable nor particularly interesting to present in great detail the manipulative technique of water analysis, and this discussion has been confined more particularly to other phases of the problem. Though the literature in respect to methods is abundant, comparatively little is said regarding the magnitude of the errors in common practice, the limitations of the methods, and their general application; consequently, the following account gives only outlines of the methods that were employed, with notes of departures from usual practice, but it considers in detail the errors of the determinations and their general availability. It was known at the commencement of the investigation that surface waters are different from one another in their mineralization, and that the concentration of the waters changes from time to time. The object of the laboratory work was to measure those differences and changes in quantitative terms accurately enough for geologic and industrial interpretation. When a chemist is examining mineral waters that are sold as beverages, he usually considers time and expense to be secondary in importance and he is enabled to avail himself of the highest refinements of analytical skill; but when he is testing waters from rivers that may change 100 per cent in their mineralization while he is examining one sample, he is not justified in employing such accurate procedure, and the cost of it is prohibitive

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when a large number of samples is involved. Estimates of the amounts of the constituents within 5 to 10 per cent are usually accurate enough for industrial purposes, and that degree of refinement is sufficient for studying fluctuations in the quality of nearly all surface waters. It was felt that in the present investigation methods should be selected that would be sufficiently accurate, fairly inexpensive, rapid in execution, and productive of results available for the greatest number of purposes. With these facts in mind, therefore, procedures were adopted for estimating the principal acids and bases with moderate accuracy. None of the methods is new, and most of them have been recognized by competent authority.

COLLECTION OF SAMPLES.

One 4-ounce bottle of water was collected daily from the stream at each river station and was mailed to a designated laboratory. Empty bottles, thoroughly cleaned and inclosed in mailing cases, were supplied from the laboratories, and the samples were shipped as soon as possible after collection. The sampling stations were established with the object of obtaining water as nearly representative as possible of the average stream flow. If bridges were near at hand the bottles were filled in midstream by lowering them into the water in suitable holders, and intake pipes also were utilized at a large number of stations. Where neither of these arrangements could be effected the samples were collected either from a boat or from the bank by attaching the bottle to the end of a long pole. When the samples were received at the laboratories, they were united in sets of ten consecutive samples, thus making for analysis a composite sample measuring about 1,100 cubic centimeters.

DIVISION OF COMPOSITE SAMPLE.

After the composite sample had been thoroughly mixed by shaking, portions were in general withdrawn as follows: For determination of suspended solids and for filtration, 500 cubic centimeters; for determination of nitrates, 50 cubic centimeters; for determination of chlorine, 100 cubic centimeters; for determination of carbonates and bicarbonates, 50 cubic centimeters. This left 410 cubic centimeters for reserve in case of accident. It was necessary to alter these amounts for some rivers; the principal changes were decrease of the amounts used for determining suspended solids and nitrates and increase of the amount used for determining total solids and certain dissolved constituents. As changes of that sort affect the accuracy of the estimates, they are noted in accounts of the determinations and in discussion of the probable errors.

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TURBIDITY.

The determination of turbidity was made on part or on all of the sample, and, as this determination does not prevent the use of the water for other procedures, the sample withdrawn for this purpose could be returned to the bottle if desired. Usually, however, the turbidity determination was made after all the others and on the reserve portion. The Jackson candle turbidimeter [a] was used for estimating turbidities between 100 and 1,000 parts per million. Estimates of turbidities exceeding 1,000 parts per million were made on a portion of the sample properly diluted with distilled water. All turbidities have been referred to the regular silica standard recommended by the American Public Health Association,[b] which can be prepared by suspending 1 gram of thoroughly dried Pear's precipitated fuller's earth [c] in 1 liter of distilled water. Such a suspension has a turbidity of 1,000 parts per million and it gives a reading of 2.3 centimeters in the standard turbidimeter. Turbidities below 100 parts per million were estimated by comparison with well-shaken dilutions of this silica standard in 250 cubic centimeter bottles of clear, colorless glass.

The turbidimeter consists of a glass tube surrounded by a cylindrical brass holder supported by a stand, in the center of which is a standard English candle. The glass tube is polished at the bottom and is graduated in millimeters from the bottom upward. The candle is automatically adjusted by a spring so that its flame is always 3 inches below the bottom of the glass tube. The water in which the turbidity is to be estimated is poured into the glass tube until the image of the lighted candle below is just obliterated. The depth of the water in the tube, read across the bottom of the meniscus, is referred to a table which gives the turbidity of the water in parts per million of silica. The instrument is convenient for laboratory work, and as its source of light is the standard candle it is ready for use at all times. The candle should be kept properly trimmed and not be in a draft. The most accurate results are obtained by making the readings in a dark room rapidly, before the liquid has become heated to any extent. The comparison between the readings of the standard turbidimeter and the corresponding parts per million of suspended silica is given in Table 1.

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[a] Leighton, M. O., The field assay of water: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 151, 1905, pp. 26-29.

[b] Report of the committee on standard methods of water analyses to the laboratory section: Public Health Association, Pub. Health Papers and Repts., vol 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 16; also Jour. Infect. Dis., No. 1, May, 1905, p. 16.

[c] Levy, E. C., A ready method for preparing a silica turbidity standard: Pub Health Papers and Repts. Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 31, pt. 2, 1905, p. 149.

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TABLE 1.—*Reduction of readings with turbidimeter to parts per million of silica.*

Depth in centimeters.	Turbidity (parts per million of silica).	Depth in centimeters.	Turbidity (parts per million of silica).	Depth in centimeters.	Turbidity (parts per million of silica).	Depth in centimeters.	Turbidity (parts per million of silica).
2.3	1,000	5.6	390	7.5	290	11.4	190
2.6	900	5.8	380	7.8	280	12.0	180
2.9	800	5.9	370	8.1	270	12.7	170
3.2	700	6.1	360	8.4	260	13.5	160
3.5	650	6.3	350	8.7	250	14.4	150
3.8	600	6.4	340	9.1	240	15.4	140
4.1	550	6.6	330	9.5	230	16.6	130
4.5	500	6.8	320	9.9	220	18.0	130
4.9	450	7.0	310	10.3	210	19.6	110
5.5	400	7.3	300	10.9	200	21.5	100

The only difficulty experienced in this determination was partial agglomeration of suspended clay in some samples, and this probably could have been obviated by determining turbidity immediately after uniting the daily samples. The probable limits of accuracy of the determination are such that the observations are recorded as in Table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Probable limits of accuracy in turbidity observations.*

[Parts per million.]

Turbidity.		Recorded to nearest—
Not less than—	Less than—	
.....	50	Unit.
50	100	5 parts.
100	500	10 parts.
500	1,000	50 parts.
1,000	.....	100 parts.

TOTAL SUSPENDED SOLIDS.

Total suspended matter was determined by use of a Gooch crucible as described by Kimberley and Hommon.[a] A mat about one-sixteenth of an inch thick of iron-free, ignited asbestos was prepared in the bottom of a porcelain Gooch crucible of 25 cubic centimeters capacity fitted to a 1-liter filtering flask. Suction was applied and the mat was washed with distilled water until the filtrate was clear, after which the crucible was dried at 180° C. for one-half hour, cooled, and weighed. After the crucible had been replaced on the filtering flask and the mat had been moistened with distilled water, a measured portion of the sample was passed through it.. The residue was washed with distilled water, the filtrate being allowed to run into

[a] Kimberley, A. E. and Hommon, H. B., The practical advantages of the Gooch crucible in the determination of the total and volatile suspended matter in sewage: Pub. Health Papers and Repts., Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 31, pt. 2, 1905, p. 123.

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the flask, and the crucible and residue were dried at 180° C. for one hour, cooled, and weighed. The difference in weight was computed to parts per million of suspended matter. Usually 500 cubic centimeters of water was used for this determination, but the suspended matter in many samples was so high that smaller portions had to be used, as little as 100 cubic centimeters being sometimes employed. Successful application of this procedure depends largely on the quality of the asbestos and on proper preparation of the mat. The asbestos should be finely shredded, thoroughly ignited, treated with strong hydrochloric acid for at least twelve hours, and then washed several times with distilled water. The mass should be shaken vigorously during these washings and allowed to settle about five minutes after each treatment, and the supernatant liquid containing the silt should then be decanted. Finally a fresh portion of water should be added and the mass should be shaken vigorously and about thirty seconds allowed for sedimentation of coarse particles. The asbestos should then be decanted from the sediment and preserved, suspended in water.

Amounts of suspended matter as small as 1 part per million were estimated, and the probable accuracy of the determination with a 500 cubic centimeter sample containing small amounts of suspended matter is within 1 part per million. The probable error is less than 10 per cent with suspended matters ranging from 100 to 5,000 parts per million. The determination presented no difficulties with most of the waters that were examined, but considerable trouble was experienced in removing the sticky "gumbo" that is suspended in many rivers of the Mississippi Valley. The material clogs the asbestos mat so badly that sometimes less than 50 cubic centimeters of water passes through. As small amounts as practicable were used in determining the suspended matter in such samples, and two or three crucibles were sometimes employed for filtering one sample. After the mat has become clogged, the surface of it can be loosened without injury by careful scraping with the point of a pencil or other sharp instrument, and filtration can proceed. It is also advantageous at times to use a thicker mat with coarse asbestos on the bottom and a finer quality on top. Loss of suspended matter by having it run through the mat occurred with some waters, but the amount of material that escaped was usually too small to constitute an appreciable source of error in the estimate of suspended solids.

TOTAL DISSOLVED SOLIDS.

Total dissolved matter was regularly determined on 500 cubic centimeters of the filtered sample, which was evaporated to dryness on the water bath in a tared platinum dish, dried at 180° C. for one hour, cooled and weighed. The residue was computed to parts per

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million of total dissolved solids. If the filtrate from the determination of suspended solids was not sufficient for estimating total solids, as in the tests of very muddy waters, the rest of the required amount was filtered through paper. The only notable difficulty experienced in making this determination was that of obtaining a clear filtrate for evaporation, especially with the muddy waters of the Southern States. Part of the suspended matter in some southern rivers is so fine that it is not removed by filtration through either an asbestos mat or paper. Though the amount of suspended solids lost in that manner is so small that it does not materially affect the estimate of suspended solids, the weight of the material, when it is compared with the relatively small amount of dissolved matter in many waters, is great enough to constitute an error in the estimate of dissolved solids, and the suspended matter also causes trouble in subsequent operations on the residue. During the first part of the work waters were filtered as well as possible through asbestos mats, then through paper mats, thus reducing the residual suspended matter in most samples to less than 5 parts per million. In later work it was found advisable to remove all traces of suspended matter from such samples by the use of alumina cream. This reagent was prepared by precipitating aluminum hydrate from a solution of aluminum sulphate by means of sodium hydrate. The precipitate was thoroughly washed with distilled water till it showed only traces of sulphates, alkalies, and alkalinity, and was then dissolved in hydrochloric acid, reprecipitated, and again thoroughly washed. One or two cubic centimeters of the aluminum hydrate was shaken with the filtrate from the suspended matter, after which the precipitant was removed by filtration through paper. A perfectly clear filtrate was obtained for evaporation by that treatment.

The determination of dissolved solids was usually made with 500 cubic centimeters of water, but 250 cubic centimeters was used for some of the western rivers that are very high in dissolved matter, and 700 cubic centimeters was taken for nearly all the waters collected at the southeastern stations during the latter half of the period, because it seemed advisable to have as much residue as possible for analysis. The difference between duplicate determinations of dissolved solids was usually about 1 part per million, when 500 cubic centimeters of the sample was evaporated and when about 100 parts per million of dissolved matter was present. The difference is likely to vary in amount more with waters containing considerable organic matter or alkali than with waters containing calcium salts.

The committee on standard methods of water analysis[a] recommend that suspended and dissolved solids be dried at 103° C. for one-half hour. Many chemists employ a temperature of 105° C., and others

[a] Pub. Health Papers and Reports, Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 43.

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dry residues in ovens surrounded by boiling water. Fresenius[a] recommends drying at 180° C. till the weight is constant, but as such long-continued desiccation was not practicable in these tests, the time was limited to one hour, though the temperature of 180° was adopted. The results seem to justify the use of the higher temperature. Practically all the water of crystallization and that mechanically occluded by residues of ordinary amount from waters of ordinary composition are driven off, and the organic matter is more or less carbonized and is greatly reduced in weight, though it is not completely destroyed. Drying at that temperature, therefore, makes comparison between the sum of the constituents and the amount of solids by actual determination more feasible than drying at the lower temperature. That the results of the analyses corroborate this belief is demonstrated on page 30 by comparisons between figures representing average total solids and those representing the average sum of the constituents. Another advantage of the higher temperature is that the results represent more nearly than those obtained at lower temperatures the conditions under which solids are deposited in steam boilers.

SILICA.

The residue from the determination of total dissolved solids, after being gently heated in a radiator until the organic matter was carbonized or wholly destroyed, was moistened with hydrochloric acid (1 to 1) and the dish, covered with a watch glass, was heated on the water bath for a few minutes. After treatment with acid had been repeated, if necessary, the sides of the dish were thoroughly rubbed down, and the mass was evaporated to dryness. The residue was again treated with 2 or 3 cubic centimeters of the acid and some distilled water, was heated on the water bath, and was finally separated from the solution by filtration through ashless filter paper. Little trouble was experienced in dissolving calcium sulphate in the residues. The insoluble part was thoroughly washed with hot water containing hydrochloric acid, ignited in a tared platinum crucible, cooled and weighed. It was then moistened with a few drops of sulphuric acid (specific gravity 1.84), and the silicia was volatilized with hydrofluoric acid, after which the crucible was again ignited, cooled and weighed. If the final residue exceeded 0.0005 gram, it was usually tested to discover its composition. The part volatilized by hydrochloric acid was computed to parts per million of silica (SiO_2). The nonvolatile residues were usually low, probably exceeding 0.0003 gram in less than 5 per cent of the analyses. They were highest in samples that were slightly turbid before evaporation, a condition indicating that part of the fine suspended matter left after filtration consisted of silicates that are not decomposed by hydrochloric acid.

[a] Fresenius, C. R., Quantitative chemical analysis (transl. of 6th German ed.), vol. 2, 1904, p. 245.

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IRON.

The iron in the filtrate from the determination of silica was oxidized by boiling the solution with a few drops of nitric acid (specific gravity 1.42). After a slight excess of ammonium hydrate had been added the liquid was heated for a few minutes to precipitate the oxides of iron and aluminum, which were then removed by filtration and washed with hot water containing a little ammonium chloride. If it was desired to determine aluminum, the precipitate was dried, ignited, and weighed, then fused with fused sodium bisulphate. The resulting mass was dissolved in dilute sulphuric acid (1 to 3) and the solution was filtered and boiled vigorously for two or three minutes with 1 cubic centimeter of nitric acid (1.42). It was then cooled and diluted with water, and the iron in it was determined colorimetrically. The amount of iron as Fe_2O_3, subtracted from the weight of the combined oxides, gives the Al_2O_3, which multiplied by 0.53 gives the aluminum (Al). If, however, it appeared from the bulk of the precipitate that the combined oxides of iron and aluminum amounted to less than 5 or 6 parts per million the determination of aluminum was omitted. In that case the precipitate was not ignited but was dissolved immediately in hydrochloric acid, 1 cubic centimeter of nitric acid (specific gravity 1.42) was added, the solution was boiled and the iron was determined colorimetrically.

The ferric solution was diluted to 90 cubic centimeters with distilled water, 10 cubic centimeters of a 2 per cent solution of potassium sulphocyanide was added, the solutions were thoroughly mixed, and the color that developed was compared immediately with iron standards in Nessler tubes measuring 17.5 centimeters to the 100 cubic centimeter mark. The depth of the colors that were compared did not exceed that equivalent to 0.001 gram of Fe, and if it was necessary to dilute the solution that operation was always performed before the addition of potassium sulphocyanide. Colors equivalent to amounts of iron between 0.001 gram and 0.0001 gram of Fe were matched by comparison with colored slides, the manipulation and accuracy of which have been discussed by the writer.[a] Colors equivalent to amounts of iron less than 0.0001 gram of Fe were compared with permanent iron standards made by mixing solutions of cobaltous chloride and potassium platinic chloride in proper proportion.[b]

Methods for the colorimetric determination of iron have been extensively studied by Stokes and Cain,[c] who have ascertained the

[a] Dole, R. B., Notes on the determination of iron: Pub. Health Papers and Repts., Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 32, pt. 1, 1907, p. 183.

[b] Public Health Papers and Reports, Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 46; also Jackson, D. D., Tech. Quart. vol. 13, 1900, p. 315.

[c] Stokes, H. N., and Cain, J. R., On the colorimetric determination of iron with special reference to chemical reagents: Bull. Bur. Standards, U. S. Dept. Com. and Lab., No. 3, 1906, p. 115; also Jour. Am. Chem. Soc., vol. 27, 1905, p. 409; Chem. Abs., Am. Chem. Soc., vol. 1, 1907, p. 1955.

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effect of certain substances and changes in technique on the intensity of the color that is developed in the sulphocyanate test. They also recommend several refinements in procedure. Special care was taken in the present investigation to make the estimate always in the same manner, and the iron group was separated from other components of the residue before the color comparisons were made. In nearly all the work the iron was precipitated from solutions representing 500 cubic centimeters of the sample, so that the probable accuracy of the estimates is somewhat greater than that of the estimates of iron usually made, for which 50 to 100 cubic centimeters of the sample is used.

CALCIUM.

The filtrate from the determination of iron was diluted to a definite volume, usually 100 cubic centimeters, and was divided into two equal parts. One part was used for the determination of calcium and magnesium and the other part for the determination of sulphates and alkalies. After the portion for the determination of calcium and magnesium had been heated to boiling in a beaker, it was made slightly alkaline with ammonium hydrate; ammonium oxalate in the form of hot 5 per cent aqueous solution was then added to it in sufficient amount to convert all the calcium and magnesium into oxalates. Ten cubic centimeters was usually added, but more was used if the figure for total solids indicated that this amount was not enough. The mixture was digested not less than three hours in order to precipitate all the calcium and to dissolve the magnesium oxalate. The solution was filtered through Schleicher and Schüll white ribbon paper No. 589, and the precipitate was washed with hot water containing a little ammonia, no special care being taken to transfer all the calcium oxalate from the flask to the funnel. The flask in which the precipitation was made was then placed under the funnel, and while the precipitate was agitated by a stream of hot water from a wash bottle dilute sulphuric acid (1 to 3) was poured on till the precipitate was completely decomposed and dissolved, after which the filter paper was thoroughly washed with hot water. If this operation is skillfully performed, the calcium precipitate is easily dissolved and 20 cubic centimeters of the dilute acid is amply sufficient for the purpose. The solution of calcium was diluted to about 100 cubic centimeters with hot distilled water and was titrated with N/20 potassium permanganate.

This method, described by Sutton,[a] was entirely satisfactory. The principal objections that had been advanced against its use are the difficulty of dissolving calcium oxalate in sulphuric acid and the

[a] Sutton, Francis, A systematic handbook of volumetric analysis, 9th ed., Philadelphia, 1904, p. 168.

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errors introduced by traces of oxalic acid and organic matter. Solution of the precipitate is easy if it is performed in the manner just outlined, and this procedure is preferable to that recommended by Sutton, of punching a hole in the filter paper and washing the precipitate into the flask. The filter paper should never be digested in sulphuric acid, because the oxidizing power of the solution is unwarrantably increased by such treatment. The results of several experiments for the purpose of determining the errors due to solution of filter paper and to traces of oxalic acid indicate that it is possible to estimate calcium volumetrically within 1 part per million when 250 cubic centimeters of the sample is used for the test. Schleicher and Schüll filter papers Nos. 595, 589, white ribbon, and 590 were treated exactly as if a calcium test were being made. Twenty cubic centimeters of dilute sulphuric acid was passed through each filter paper in a funnel, and the papers were then washed with hot distilled water until the filtrate amounted to about 100 cubic centimeters. When the acid solutions were titrated with N/20 potassium permanganate, the average amount of permanganate consumed by the solutions passed through No. 595 papers was 0.10 cubic centimeter; through No. 589, 0.09 cubic centimeter; and through No. 590, 0.06 cubic centimeter. The highest amount, 0.10 cubic centimeter, is equivalent for a 250 cubic centimeter sample to 0.4 part per million of calcium, an amount so small that it can be disregarded. In another experiment for the purpose of estimating the amount of oxalic acid that might be retained by the papers, 10 cubic centimeter lots of a 5 per cent solution of ammonium oxalate with 4 drops of nitric acid (specific gravity 1.42) and enough ammonium hydrate to make the mixture slightly alkaline were heated to boiling in an Erlenmeyer flask and filtered through different filter papers, which were afterwards washed with hot water till the filtrates failed to show the presence of chlorides. The filter papers were then treated with 20 cubic centimeters of sulphuric acid and washed, and the solutions were titrated with N/20 potassium permanganate. The average consumption of permanganate with No. 595 papers was 0.19 cubic centimeter; with No. 589 papers, 0.08 cubic centimeter; and with No. 590 papers, 0.08 cubic centimeter. The slight increase of permanganate for No. 595 papers over that used in the previous experiment is probably due to disintegration of this coarse-grained paper during washing. When samples of the three papers were torn into small pieces and were boiled for an hour in a 5 per cent sulphuric acid solution, the consumption of permanganate was notably increased, the amounts ranging from 0.2 to 0.3 cubic centimeter, but boiling the filter papers in sulphuric acid is not advised in the procedure and it is not necessary. If the precipitate is dissolved by pouring hot water

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and dilute sulphuric acid through the paper, the consumption of permanganate solution by organic matter dissolved from the paper and by traces of oxalic acid left in it apparently does not exceed 0.10 cubic centimeter, an amount equivalent to 0.4 part per million of calcium in the regular procedure. The oxalic acid that may be occluded by the calcium oxalate was not estimated, but it is evident that this amount varies with the volume of precipitate, and the percentage of error is, therefore, no higher for low than for high calciums. The results of experiments comparing volumetric with gravimetric determinations also justify the conclusion that the volumetric method for estimating calcium is sufficiently accurate for general water analysis.

MAGNESIUM.

The filtrate from the calcium, having been made slightly acid with hydrochloric acid, was concentrated till the salts began to crystallize. An excess of a 10 per cent solution of sodium ammonium phosphate was added, and the liquid was allowed to cool. Finally it was made distinctly alkaline with ammonium hydrate and set aside not less than six hours in order to insure complete precipitation of the magnesium. Two cubic centimeters of strong ammonia (specific gravity 0.90) was usually sufficient in a volume of 50 to 75 cubic centimeters. Attention has been called by Gooch and Austin[a] to the fact that the large excess of ammonia which is so commonly added is distinctly disadvantageous. The precipitate was separated by filtration and was washed by decantation with water containing a little ammonia, till the excess of precipitant was removed. The precipitate in the beaker and on the paper was dissolved in 5 cubic centimeters of 5 per cent acetic acid and about 40 cubic centimeters of hot water. Five cubic centimeters of a 5 per cent ammonium acetate solution was added and the solution was titrated with standard uranium solution, care being taken to boil the solution vigorously before noting the final end point, which is found by adding a drop of the liquid to a drop of half-saturated solution of potassium ferrocyanide on a white porcelain plate.

This improvement on Sutton's method[b] of dissolving and titrating the phosphoric acid was devised and tested by M. G. Roberts. It is important to have a constant amount of solution, as the end point varies somewhat with the volume. The quantity of phosphate that is titrated should be such that 1 to 20 cubic centimeters of uranium solution may be added. The method was tested with satisfactory results by comparison with Sutton's procedure and with the usual gravimetric method.[c]

[a] Am. Jour. Sci., 4th ser., vol. 7, 1899, p. 187; also Bull. U. S. Geol. Survey No. 176, 1900, p. 65.
[b] Sutton, Francis, A systematic handbook of volumetric analysis, 9th ed., Philadelphia, 1904, p. 294.
[c] Fresenius, C. R., Quantitative chemical analysis (trans. of 6th German ed.), vol. 1, 1904, p. 275.

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SULPHATE RADICLE.

The usual gravimetric method[a] was employed for the determination of sulphates. One-half the filtrate from the determination of iron was slightly acidulated with hydrochloric acid and was heated nearly to boiling. Excess of barium chloride in hot 10 per cent solution was then added, after which the liquid was digested on the hot plate for at least thirty minutes. The precipitate of barium sulphate was removed by filtration, thoroughly washed with hot water, dried, ignited, and weighed. The amount of sulphates as parts per million of SO_4 was computed from that weight.

SODIUM AND POTASSIUM.

The filtrate from the sulphate determination was treated with ammonia and ammonium carbonate and was filtered. The filtrate was evaporated to dryness on the water bath, heated to expel ammonium salts, and digested with a few cubic centimeters of distilled water. Magnesium was precipitated with barium hydrate, the solution was again filtered, and the precipitate was washed with hot water. The filtrate from this operation was heated, and barium and calcium were precipitated with ammonium carbonate and were removed by filtration, after which the filtrate was evaporated to dryness and heated to expel ammonium salts. The residue was digested with 4 or 5 cubic centimeters of water, warmed, and treated again with ammonia and ammonium carbonate to remove traces of barium and calcium. The solution was then filtered into a small porcelain dish and evaporated to dryness. The residue was heated nearly to fusion and weighed. The alkaline chlorides in the dish were dissolved in a little water and were filtered through an ashless filter paper, which was then washed, ignited in the porcelain dish, and weighed. The difference in weights was calculated to "sodium and potassium," the molecular weight 58 being used for the material. The error introduced by disregarding potassium is discussed on page 33. The procedure is similar to that recommended by Fresenius,[b] and it requires no special comment except that care was taken to insure complete removal of impurities. If the third treatment with ammonia and ammonium carbonate produced an appreciable amount of precipitate, the operation was repeated till the last treatment revealed only traces of impurities.

The sodium-potassium ratio of some of the river waters was determined quarterly. The solutions of alkaline chlorides from the ten-day composite samples representing a three months' period were united and repurified in accordance with the procedure just outlined.

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[a] Fresenius, C. R., op. cit., vol. 1, 1904, p. 434.
[b] Fresenius, C. R., op. cit., vol. 2, 1905, p. 249.

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The pure chlorides were then evaporated nearly to dryness in a Jena dish with sufficient platinic chloride to convert the alkalies into their platinum double salts. The residue was treated with 80 per cent alcohol, and the potassium platinic chloride, removed by filtration through an asbestos mat in a small filter tube, was washed with dilute alcohol, dried in a steam oven, and weighed. By dissolving the potassium platinic chloride in hot water, drying, and again weighing the filter tube, the difference in weight representing the mass of the potassium double salt could be found and computed to parts per million of potassium (K).

CARBONATE AND BICARBONATE RADICLES.

Estimates of the carbonate and bicarbonate radicles were made on the same 50 cubic centimeter sample of the water, which was filtered if necessary. Ten drops of phenolphthalein were added to the measured sample in a porcelain dish of convenient size and the sample was titrated with N/50 potassium acid sulphate solution. The number of cubic centimeters of acid used, multiplied by 24, equals parts per million of the carbonate radicle (CO_3). Two drops of methyl orange were added to the same liquid and the titration was continued. The total amount of acid used, minus twice that required for the first end point, equals that equivalent to the bicarbonates present. The latter figure, expressed in cubic centimeters and multiplied by 24.4, equals parts per million of the bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3). The water was sometimes diluted or a larger amount was taken for titration, but it could not, of course, be concentrated. This procedure is recommended by Cameron [a] and it gave results that are sufficiently satisfactory. The balance between the different forms of carbonic acid in solution is variable, depending largely on concentration, temperature, and pressure. It is fairly certain that many of the waters which gave positive tests for normal carbonates do not contain that form of carbonic acid in nature. It is unjustifiable, however, to assume from the data at hand that no natural stream waters contain normal carbonates, and it is equally impossible definitely to decide which ones do and which ones do not contain them. Consequently the carbonates and bicarbonates are reported exactly as they were determined, but CO_3 has been computed to HCO_3 in calculating the average condition of streams if there were only a few scattered positive tests for normal carbonates. All such recomputations are noted in the tables of analyses, and the figures involved bear the following footnote: "Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average."

[a] Cameron, F. K., Bull. Bur. Soils, U. S. Dept. Agr., No. 64, 1900, p. 63; also Jour. Am. Chem. Soc., vol. 23, 1900, p. 471.

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CHLORINE.

The usual volumetric procedure was employed for the determination of chlorine,[a] and the concentrations of solution recommended by Jackson and described by Leighton[b] were used in order that the results might be comparable with normal chlorine determinations. One hundred cubic centimeters of the sample was usually concentrated to 25 cubic centimeters in a porcelain dish on the water bath at a time when hydrochloric acid fumes were not prevalent in the laboratory. If a large amount of the element was present a smaller sample was taken and duplicate determinations were made. After the sample had been concentrated, 1 cubic centimeter of a 5 per cent potassium chromate solution was added and the inside of the dish was thoroughly rubbed down with a rubber policeman. Standard silver nitrate was then added from a burette, till the first faint reddish tint appeared. Each analyst determined by experiment with chlorine-free water the amount of silver nitrate necessary to produce a red coloration detectible by him under regular conditions, and he subtracted that amount from the results of his titrations. The chlorine (Cl) in parts per million was then computed. Samples that were very turbid or highly colored were filtered or were clarified by treatment with alumina cream. When very large amounts of chlorine were present, gravimetric determinations were made by precipitating the chlorine as silver chloride in nitric acid solution, removing the precipitate by filtration through an asbestos mat in a Gooch crucible, drying in a steam oven, and weighing.

NITRATES.

The phenolsulphonic acid method was used for the determination of nitrates.[c] As practically all the surface waters that were tested contained amounts of color sufficient to interfere materially with the color comparison in this test, it was necessary to decolorize the samples before evaporation. A small amount of alumina cream was shaken with 75 to 80 cubic centimeters of the sample in a 4-ounce bottle and allowed to settle, after which 50 cubic centimeters of the clear supernatant liquid was removed either by filtration or by decantation and was evaporated to dryness in a porcelain dish on the water bath with a few drops of sodium carbonate solution. One cubic centimeter of phenolsulphonic acid was quickly and thoroughly rubbed over the residue in the dish, after which 10 cubic centimeters of distilled water was added and the solution was stirred till it was thoroughly mixed. After enough ammonium hydrate to render the

[a] Pub. Health Papers and Reports, Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 66; also Sutton, Francis, A systematic handbook of volumetric analysis, 1904, p. 451.

[b] Leighton, M. O., Field assay of water: Water-Supply Paper U. S. Geol. Survey No. 151, 1905, p. 49.

[c] Public Health Papers and Reports, Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 40.

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liquid alkaline had been added, the solution was transferred to a Nessler tube and was diluted to the 100 cubic centimeter mark with distilled water. The yellow color developed by the nitrates was compared with similar shades in Nessler tubes containing solutions of known amounts of potassium nitrate that had been treated with phenolsulphonic acid and ammonia. The results are reported as parts per million of the nitrate radicle (NO_3), not as N, the customary basis in sanitary work. Though this procedure is comparatively accurate for estimating the amount of nitrogen actually present as nitrates at the time of the test, it must be emphatically stated that the reported nitrate figures do not represent the amount of nitrogen present as nitrates in the stream waters when the samples were collected. Practical considerations made it impossible to perform the test less than ten days after some of the samples had been collected and the estimate was made in a great many samples after a period of three to eight weeks, or even more, had elapsed. Inasmuch as this length of time was sufficient for marked changes in the amount of nitrates, the value of the results is problematical. The determination was made in order to complete the estimation of acid radicles that were present in appreciable amount, and though its value as an index of the condition of the stream water at the time the samples were taken is probably not great, the comparative amounts in the different streams may furnish some information regarding the amount of organic matter that is present, and this feature is the excuse for the presentation of the nitrate figures in the analytical data.

TOTAL ACIDITY.

If the water under examination contained free mineral acid a convenient amount of the sample, filtered if necessary, was titrated with N/10 sodium carbonate in the presence of methyl orange indicator. If 50 cubic centimeters of water is titrated, the number of cubic centimeters of N/10 alkali used, multiplied by 98, gives the result in parts per million of free sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4).

TOTAL IRON.

As most of the iron in many river waters forms part of the suspended matter rather than part of the matter in solution, a figure representing to some extent the total amount of iron was estimated at some laboratories. The test was made by boiling vigorously 50 cubic centimeters of the unfiltered sample ten or fifteen minutes with 1 cubic centimeter each of concentrated nitric and hydrochloric acids. The liquid was then filtered, and the iron in it was determined colorimetrically by the sulphocyanide method. The figure obtained in this manner is only approximate, as all the iron in the suspended matter is probably not dissolved by this treatment.

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PREPARATION OF SOLUTIONS.

TWENTIETH-NORMAL POTASSIUM PERMANGANATE.

About 2 grams of potassium permanganate crystals were dissolved in freshly boiled distilled water, and the solution was filtered through glass wool and diluted to 1 liter. The strength of the solution was determined by titration against iron. Three portions of pure iron wire, each weighing about 0.2 gram, were dissolved in 125 cubic centimeter Erlenmeyer flasks in 40 cubic centimeters of water and 10 cubic centimeters of concentrated sulphuric acid. The solutions were cooled rapidly to about 60° C. and diluted to 50 cubic centimeters with freshly boiled distilled water. One portion was titrated with the permanganate solution, which was then diluted to one-twentieth normal strength, and the other two portions were used to verify the accuracy of the dilution. The amount of permanganate necessary to produce a detectible red coloration with 10 cubic centimeters of concentrated sulphuric acid and 40 cubic centimeters of water was subtracted from each titration, and the iron wire was considered to be 99.6 per cent pure Fe. The strength of the permanganate solution was verified in many tests also by titration against potassium tetraoxalate and against Iceland spar. One cubic centimeter of N/20 potassium permanganate is equivalent to 0.001 gram of calcium (Ca) from calcium oxalate.

AMMONIUM ACETATE.

Forty-four cubic centimeters of ammonium hydrate (specific gravity 0.90) and 37 cubic centimeters of glacial acetic acid were dissolved in 1 liter of distilled water.

STANDARD SODIUM AMMONIUM PHOSPHATE SOLUTION.

In 1 liter of distilled water 8.4507 grams of sodium ammonium phosphate was dissolved. One cubic centimeter of this solution should be equivalent to 0.001 gram of magnesium (Mg), and the strength was always verified by gravimetric determination of the phosphate radicle.

STANDARD URANIUM SOLUTION.

About 21 grams of uranium nitrate was dissolved in 800 cubic centimeters of distilled water, enough ammonium hydrate to produce a slight turbidity was added, then 50 grams of glacial acetic acid was added, and the whole was diluted to 1 liter with distilled water. Ten cubic centimeters of the solution of sodium ammonium phosphate was next mixed in a beaker with 5 cubic centimeters of ammonium acetate and 35 cubic centimeters of distilled water. After this

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solution had been heated to boiling the uranium solution was added till the faintest brown coloration appeared, when a drop of the liquid was mixed with a drop of half-saturated solution of potassium ferrocyanide on a white porcelain slip. As soon as the coloration appeared the solution was diluted to 50 cubic centimeters with boiling water and the test was repeated. If the operation had been properly conducted no red coloration appeared in the second test, and the addition of two or three drops of uranium solution was necessary before the final reading. The amount of uranium solution necessary to produce a detectible red coloration in a blank test was subtracted from all titrations. The uranium solution was then diluted till 1 cubic centimeter of it was exactly equivalent to 1 cubic centimeter of the solution of sodium ammonium phosphate, and the accuracy of the dilution was verified by additional titrations against sodium ammonium phosphate.

METHYL ORANGE.

One gram of methyl orange was dissolved in 1 liter of distilled water and the solution was filtered. As the accuracy of the bicarbonate estimate depends largely on the quality of the indicator, special care was taken to select a satisfactory article. Several samples of methyl orange were tested, and the one that gave the most satisfactory results was used exclusively for the estimates.

PHENOLPHTHALEIN.

Ten grams of phenolphthalein was dissolved in 500 cubic centimeters of alcohol (specific gravity 0.834), and the solution was diluted to 1 liter with distilled water.

FIFTIETH-NORMAL POTASSIUM ACID SULPHATE.

About 3 grams of potassium acid sulphate was dissolved in 1 liter of freshly boiled distilled water. A portion of the solution was titrated against some other carefully standardized solution, using methyl orange indicator, and the strong solution was then diluted to one-fiftieth normal strength with distilled water. Normal sulphuric acid, which had been tested both by titration against alkali and by precipitation with barium chloride, was usually employed as a basis for standardization.

POTASSIUM CHROMATE SOLUTION.

The solution of potassium chromate was prepared by dissolving 50 grams of the pure salt in 1 liter of distilled water and then adding sufficient silver nitrate to precipitate all the chlorine present and turn the solution slightly reddish. This was allowed to stand, and the clear solution was then obtained by filtering or decanting.

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STANDARD SALT SOLUTION.

A solution containing 0.001 gram of chlorine in each cubic centimeter was made by dissolving 1.648 grams of fused sodium chloride in 1 liter of distilled water free from chlorine.

STANDARD SILVER SOLUTION.

In 1 liter of distilled water free from chlorine was dissolved 2½ grams of crystallized silver nitrate. Water or strong silver nitrate was added to this solution until by actual titration 10 cubic centimeters of it was equivalent to 5 cubic centimeters of the standard salt solution. One cubic centimeter of the solution of silver nitrate was then equivalent to 0.0005 gram of chlorine.

STANDARD NITRATE SOLUTION.

In 1 liter of distilled water was dissolved 1.63 grams of potassium nitrate. One cubic centimeter of this solution contains 0.001 gram of NO_3. Fifty cubic centimeters of this strong solution was cautiously evaporated to dryness on the water bath, and the residue was moistened equally and thoroughly with 2 cubic centimeters of phenolsulphonic acid and was diluted to 1 liter with distilled water. One cubic centimeter of this solution contains 0.00005 gram of NO_3. The necessary amounts of this solution, which was used as a standard, were made alkaline with ammonia as needed and were diluted in Nessler tubes to 100 cubic centimeters with distilled water.

PHENOLSULPHONIC ACID.

Seventy-five grams of pure melted phenol was added slowly with constant agitation to 925 grams of sulphuric acid (specific gravity 1.84) in a liter flask. The flask, covered with a watch glass, was then heated on a water bath for six hours to insure complete sulphonation of its contents.

TENTH-NORMAL SODIUM CARBONATE.

A strong solution of the purest crystallized sodium carbonate that could be obtained was titrated against normal sulphuric acid and diluted to one-tenth normal strength, which was verified also by titration against N/50 potassium acid sulphate. One cubic centimeter of N/10 sodium carbonate is equivalent to 0.0049 gram of sulphuric acid.

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DEPARTURES FROM REGULAR PROCEDURES.

GENERAL DEPARTURES.

The regular procedures were followed systematically in most of the analytical work, the only exceptions being in some matters of minor detail. Calcium and magnesium were estimated gravimetrically for short periods at some of the laboratories, and the amount of water used for the different determinations, especially for suspended solids, was changed at will in order to obtain the best working conditions.

ANALYSES OF MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The daily samples of water from Mississippi River at New Orleans were united in sets of seven instead of ten. The most important departure in analysis of the composites was in regard to suspended solids, from which the water was freed by filtering it with suction through Berkefeld filter tubes; the effect of passing the water of Mississippi River through these stones was practically negligible so far as the mineral content was concerned, because large quantities of water were available. The residue from evaporating 100 cubic centimeters of the filtered water was dried at 110° C. instead of 180° C. and was weighed for total dissolved solids. Silica, oxides of iron and aluminum, calcium, and magnesium were determined gravimetrically on the residue from 2 liters of water, and from 2 to 4 liters was taken for estimation of sulphates and the alkalies.

ANALYSES OF ANDROSCOGGIN RIVER.

Spot samples were collected weekly from Androscoggin River, and the small amount of mineral matter in the water necessitated several refinements in method. The water was nearly free from suspended matter except flocculent particles, from which a clear liquid was decanted after sedimentation. Three liters of the clear water was evaporated to dryness, and the residue was dried below red heat till it became white, before it was weighed. It was then treated with hydrochloric acid; and silica, oxides of iron and aluminum, and calcium were determined gravimetrically. One-half the filtrate was used for gravimetric estimate of magnesium and the other half for gravimetric estimate of sulphates and alkalies. Sodium and potassium were separated by treatment with platinic chloride. The carbonate and bicarbonate radicles were not estimated; consequently no values have been reported for them. The amount of bicarbonates equivalent to the average excess of the bases over sulphates and chlorine in this water is 20 parts per million, which, added to the sum of the dissolved constituents that were estimated, gives 48 parts per million. The latter figure is probably more nearly comparable with

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the figures representing total dissolved solids at 180° C. than the average of the determinations of the residue reported on page 48.

ANALYSES OF SOUTHERN RIVERS.

Some river waters of the Southeastern States are characterized at certain seasons of the year by suspended matter so finely divided that ordinary methods of filtration fail to remove it, and as a consequence much trouble was experienced in obtaining a clear filtrate for determination of the dissolved constituents. The difficulty was finally overcome by treatment with aluminum hydrate as described on page 14, but between November, 1906, and June, 1907, the procedure in the following paragraph was used for waters of this character.

A convenient amount of the samples was filtered through an asbestos mat in a Gooch crucible for the determination of suspended matter, and the filtrate, clarified later if necessary, was used for estimation of nitrates, chlorine, carbonates, and bicarbonates. A much clearer liquid was obtained by filtering 750 cubic centimeters of the sample through a mat of ashless paper pulp in a Gooch crucible, and the amount of suspended iron in the residue on the mat was determined volumetrically. Two-thirds of the filtrate was evaporated to dryness in acid solution in a porcelain dish, and the residue was used for estimation of silica, iron, calcium, and magnesium. One-third of the filtrate was evaporated to dryness without acid in a platinum dish, and the residue was dried and weighed for determination of dissolved solids, after which it was used for estimation of sulphates and alkalies.

PROBABLE ACCURACY OF ESTIMATES.

THEORETICAL LIMITS OF ACCURACY.

The theoretical limits of accuracy in the procedures have been estimated by consideration of the amounts of water used for the determinations, the probable accuracy of the balances, burettes, and standard solutions that were employed, the impurities in the reagents, and the manipulative errors to which the results were subject. Such estimates of accuracy, apart from some influences that may be computed mathematically, are more or less approximate, because the magnitude of the errors may perhaps be decreased by practicing, or increased by failing to practice, certain refinements in the analytical methods; but they are introduced for the purpose of showing the number of figures that may be significant in the results. The probable limits of accuracy are given in Table 3, in which the first column gives the name of the determination, the second column the amount of water usually taken, and the third column the theoretical minimum amount that can be estimated with any precision when the constituent is present in comparatively small amount. The minimum of accurate estimate increases with the actual mass of the substance.

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TABLE 3.—*Limits of accuracy of the determinations.*

Name of determination.	Amount of water usually taken.	Minimum limit of accuracy.	Name of determination.	Amount of water usually taken.	Minimum limit of accuracy.
Turbidity	.....	3	Sodium and potassium (Na+K)	250	0.5
Suspended matter	500	1	Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	50	2.5
Total solids	500	1	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	50	2.5
Silica (SiO_2)	500	.6	Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	250	.5
Iron (Fe)	500	.05	Chlorine (Cl)	100	.5
Calcium (Ca)	250	.8	Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	50	.09
Magnesium (Mg)	250	.8			

The assigned limits of accuracy probably err by being too small instead of too large. The way in which they were evolved may be illustrated by the determination of calcium. In the regular procedure the calcium in 250 cubic centimeters of the sample is precipitated with ammonium oxalate in alkaline solution, heated, removed by filtration, dissolved in sulphuric acid, and titrated with N/20 potassium permanganate. The estimate is subject to certain errors, among which may be mentioned errors in measuring the amount of water to be used, in standardizing the permanganate solution, and in measuring the permanganate solution; errors due to the use of an improper end point, to organic matter from the filter paper, to organic matter in the sample, and to oxalic acid retained by the paper or occluded by the precipitate; and errors due to solubility of calcium oxalate in the precipitating solution and to retention of other oxalates in the precipitate. An error of 0.1 cubic centimeter in measuring 10 or 20 cubic centimeters of permanganate solution, which is not unlikely, would be equivalent to 0.4 part per million of calcium for a 250 cubic centimeter sample. The filter paper may contribute oxidizing matter equivalent to an amount of permanganate between 0.03 and 0.10 cubic centimeter, averaging 0.08 cubic centimeter, or 0.32 part per million of calcium. It would be surprising, indeed, if the addition of the positive and negative errors due to other sources of inaccuracy did not contribute an error equivalent to 0.08 part per million. Consequently the estimate of calcium in 250 cubic centimeters of water should not be considered accurate within 0.8 part per million when ordinary amounts of the substance are present, and it would probably be in greater error when large amounts of calcium are present or when smaller amounts of water are used for the determination.

It is probable that some of the analytical results are subject to even greater inaccuracy. The estimates in the third column of Table 3 are, however, given more for the purpose of demonstrating the limit to which reliance should be placed on the analyses than for any other purpose, and this consideration of the probable accuracy of the estimates leads to the interesting subject of the number of figures that

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may be considered significant in the results. The committee on standard methods of water analysis of the American Public Health Association[a] has recommended that when the results show quantities above 10 parts per million no decimals be reported; that when results are between 1 and 10 parts one decimal only should be reported, and that when results are between 0.1 and 1 part two decimals only should be reported. These rules, though they were suggested especially for sanitary work, have much merit when applied to all water analyses; and if they were generally adopted these limitations would render unnecessary much unjustifiable figuring and would still leave results sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes. The recommendations of the committee were adopted in the present investigation, and though they do not coincide exactly in all respects with the minimum limits of accuracy recorded in Table 3, it was thought best to follow them rigidly rather than to attempt to adjust the results of each determination to an estimate that depends more or less on judgment rather than on accurate determination by analytical methods.

COMPARISON OF THE SUM AND TOTAL SOLIDS.

The probable accuracy of the analyses can be checked by comparing the sum of the constituents with the figure for total solids and by comparing the combining weights with the acids and the bases with each other. The first comparison shows the advantage of drying the total residue at 180° C. Some organic matter is left in the residue at that temperature, depending largely on its nature, and a little water sometimes remains. Part of the carbonates are probably decomposed, especially if much silica is present, and all the half-bound carbonic acid is volatilized. If much magnesium chloride is formed in the residue, part of the chlorine probably escapes. Usually, however, these sources of error tend to neutralize one another, and a fairly good agreement is found between total solids and the sum of the dissolved constituents minus the half-bound carbonic acid. In order to illustrate this point, 800 analyses made at one laboratory by several chemists have been grouped according to the magnitude of the figure representing total dissolved solids, and the average difference between the sum of the constituents and this total has been computed for each group. The results are tabulated below. The last two lines of this table have been supplied from work done at another laboratory because the determinations of high solids at the first laboratory were not sufficiently numerous to justify computation of averages.

[a] Public Health Papers and Reports, Am. Pub. Health Assoc., vol. 30, pt. 2, 1905, p. 26.

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TABLE 4.—*Average difference between dissolved solids and the sum of the constituents.*

[Parts per million.]

Dissolved solids.		Average difference (plus or minus).
Not less than—	Less than—	
.....	50	4
50	100	5
100	200	5
200	300	6
300	400	9
400	1,000	25
1,000	.....	60

The figure for total solids is the higher in more than 90 per cent of the analyses, a condition showing the presence of organic matter and undetermined constituents. Ten parts excess of total solids is not uncommon, especially in highly colored waters, but 10 parts excess of the sum of the constituents is unusual in waters running below 200 parts per million of solids, and results of that character should be carefully examined for error. The excess of total solids over the sum of the constituents may be 10 to 15 parts in a sample containing 100 to 200 parts per million of solids, if much organic matter is present; it may be higher in highly sulphated or chlorinated waters, especially with a high sodium base, but it does not usually exceed 10 to 15 parts in ordinary carbonated waters, even in those containing as much as 300 parts of total solids.

The average differences between total solids and the sum of constituents in analyses of waters that had been treated with aluminum hydrate as described on page 14 were somewhat less than the differences on untreated waters from rivers containing water of similar character, and excesses of the sum over the total solids were somewhat more common. Inasmuch as the waters treated in this manner were high in organic matter, most of which was removed by the aluminum hydrate, the facts just detailed seem to corroborate the belief that much of the difference between total solids and the sum is due to organic matter; but the evidence on this point is not conclusive.

ERROR OF COMBINING VALUES.

METHODS OF COMPUTATION.

The accuracy of the analyses was also checked by comparing the combining weights of the acidic and the basic radicles with each other. The constituents ordinarily present in natural waters in appreciable amount were quantitatively determined by analysis; therefore, the difference between the sum of the combining weights of the acidic radicles and the sum of the combining weights of the

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basic radicles is a good test of the accuracy of the analysis. Each radicle expressed in parts per million was multiplied by its valence and the product divided by its molecular weight. The quotient is the combining weight of the radicle in parts per million; or to prevent confusion it may be called the combining value. The difference between the sum of the acidic and the sum of the basic values, multiplied by 100, then divided by the sum of all the values, represents the percentage of error of the combining values. Factors for computing the combining value from the amount of the radicle are given in Table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Factors for computing combining values.*

	Factor.		Factor.		Factor.
Iron (Fe)	0.0358	Potassium (K)	0.0255	Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	[illegible]
Aluminum (Al)	.1107	Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	.0333	Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	[illegible]
Calcium (Ca)	.0499	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	.0164	Chlorine (Cl)	[illegible]
Magnesium (Mg)	.0821				
Sodium (Na)	.0434				

The method of computation is illustrated in Table 6, in which the calculations are made on an analysis of Susquehanna River.

TABLE 6.—*Illustration of methods of computing probable accuracy of analysis.*

I. Analytical statement.	Parts per million.	II. Computation of error.	Parts per million.	Factor.	Combining value
Silica (SiO_2)	9.0				
Iron (Fe)	.05				
		Bases:			
Calcium (Ca)	26	Calcium (Ca)	26	× 0.0499	= 1.[illegible]
Magnesium (Mg)	6.4	Magnesium (Mg)	6.4	× .0821	= .[illegible]
Sodium and potassium (Na+K)	12	Sodium and potassium (Na+K)	12	× .0434	= .[illegible]
		Acids:			
Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	32.0	Carbonate radicle (CO_3)	0.0	× 0.0333	= 0.0[illegible]
Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3) 66; equivalent amount of CO_3.		Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	66	× .0164	= 1.0[illegible]
Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	42	Sulphate radicle (SO_4)	42	× .0208	= [illegible]
Chlorine (Cl)	9.8	Chlorine (Cl)	9.8	× .0282	= .[illegible]
Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	7.0	Nitrate radicle (NO_3)	7.0	× .0161	= .11
Sum of constituents	144				
Total solids	142	Percentage of error	$\frac{100(2.34 - 2.34)}{2.34 + 2.34}$		= 0.0
Difference	+2				

Silica has been considered to be present in colloidal form, and this is in accordance with the generally accepted view. Kahlenberg and Lincoln,[a] who are quoted by Clarke,[b] conclude from their experiments that it appears safe to say that in natural waters silica always

[a] Kahlenberg, L., and Lincoln, A. T., Solutions of silicates of the alkalies: Jour. Phys. Chem., vol. [illegible], 1898, p. 77.

[b] Clarke, F. W., The data of geochemistry: Bull. U. S. Geol. Survey No. 330, 1898, p. 151.

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occurs in the colloidal state, and Kohlrausch[a] and other investigators make practically the same statement. Iron and aluminum have been treated as bases in waters containing free mineral acids and as if present in colloidal state in all other waters. The omission or addition of iron in the bases makes no practical difference in the calculated error of nearly all the analyses, and aluminum was usually not estimated.

Sodium and potassium have been computed as if no potassium were present—that is, the alkalies have been computed from the weight of the combined chlorides by using the molecular weight 58. That this disregard of potassium in analyses of ordinary river waters introduces a negligible error may be demonstrated mathematically as follows. The ratio of sodium to potassium determined on 103 composite samples of river water is between 1.8 and 31.2, averaging 5.1, and the assumption that the ratio equals 2 allows practically a maximum value for potassium. If Na/K = 2, the error expressed in percentage of the calculated combining value of the alkalies is given in the following equation, in which x equals the amount of potassium in parts per million:

$$\frac{39.4\times0.0434(2.54\times2x+1.90x)-4.34\times2x-2.55x}{0.394\times0.0434(2.54\times2x+1.90x)}=5.9$$

If it is assumed that Na/K equals 5 the error is 2.8 per cent of the combining value of the alkalies. Furthermore, as high alkalies are usually accompanied by high ratios, it is doubtful whether a river with sodium and potassium as high as 15 per cent of the combining values would have a ratio as low as 5. In fact, the assumptions that the combining value of Na + K equals 18 per cent of the total combining weights and that the ratio Na/K equals 2 probably represent extreme and very unusual conditions, and even under such conditions the error introduced by using the molecular weight of sodium chloride is only 1 per cent.

On the other hand, the calculation of potassium as such when the true ratio is known increases the sum of the constituents. If x equals the ratio Na/K the ratio of the true value of Na + K to the calculated value of Na + K becomes

$$\frac{x+1}{x+0.75}.$$

In other words, the calculated value for sodium and potassium is always less than the true value, and the difference between the two is greater as x decreases. But this error also is negligible in nearly all analyses. Other elements either not included in the estimates

[a] Kohlrausch, F., Über Lösungen von Natriumsilikaten: Zeitschr. physikal. Chemie, vol. 12, 1893, p. 773.

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or disregarded in the computations, such as barium, strontium, lithium, manganese, and phosphates, are probably present in quantities so small that they have no appreciable effect on the calculations. Organic acids, which were not estimated, are an important exception to this statement, and they probably account for many of the computed excesses of bases over acids.

An important feature to be considered in discussing the probable accuracy of the analyses is the limit of accuracy of the individual determinations. The specimen analysis in Table 6 has 142 parts per million of total solids and the computed percentage of error of the combining values is zero. If, however, each radicle were in error by the amount given in Table 2 as the limit of accuracy in determination an error of 4 per cent would accrue; but as this theoretica-maximum error is based on the assumption that eight figures may attain the maximum deviation in a given direction in the same analysis, the probabilities of its occurrence are small. When the error of combining values is as high as this or higher it is usually the case that one or two constituents deviate by an amount more than the theoretical limit of accuracy while the other radicles are relatively constant. The percentage of error due to this source varies inversely with the sum of the constituents; in other words, it is greater with low total solids and less with high total solids. It also changes somewhat with changes in the relative composition of the residue. It is interesting to note in this connection that the computations of 800 analyses made at one laboratory give 3.9 per cent as the average error of the combining values, with an average of total solids of 130 parts per million, figures coinciding almost exactly with the theoretical estimates.

RELATION BETWEEN TOTAL SOLIDS AND PERCENTAGE OF ERROR.

Though part of the analyses made in accordance with the regular methods are reported in this paper only by averages, it is deemed proper to discuss the errors of all in this section because of the amount of available material. The analyses, irrespective of the source from which the waters were taken and the laboratory in which the analyses were made, have been grouped according to the amount of total solids, and the percentages of error of the combining values have been averaged by groups. The results of these computations are presented in Table 7. Practically all the analyses were made with the regular amounts of water, and those in which greater or less amounts were used are so few that they do not affect the results.

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TABLE 7.—*Percentage of errors of combining values grouped according to the amount of dissolved solids.*

Dissolved solids (parts per million).		Number of analyses.	Average error of combining weights (per cent).
Not less than—	Less than—		
.....	50	65	6.5
50	100	844	5.3
100	200	713	4.5
200	300	907	3.1
300	400	451	2.9
400	500	137	2.8
500	1,000	134	2.6
1,000	2,000	70	1.6
		3,321	

The average error computed for the entire number of 3,321 analyses is 3.9 per cent, with an average of dissolved solids of 230 parts per million. The average errors of the several groups range from 6.5 per cent for solids below 50 parts to 1.6 per cent for solids between 1,000 and 2,000 parts per million, and the magnitude of the error decreases with increase of dissolved solids. A comparatively small number of very large errors make the averages somewhat higher than they otherwise would be, nearly two-thirds of the analyses having errors smaller than the averages of their respective groups. In 60 per cent of the analyses the bases are in excess, but this preponderance of positive errors is confined almost entirely to waters in which the dissolved solids are less than 250 parts per million and is not great enough to be especially significant. The significance of the average error of 3.9 per cent with 230 parts per million of dissolved solids can better be realized when it is considered that if it were all concentrated in a single determination it would amount to only 14 parts of bicarbonates, 5 parts of calcium, or 3 parts of magnesium. It corresponds to an average error in the individual determination of about 4 per cent, which is far within the limits of ordinary practice. In consideration of the relatively small amounts of substance that may cause these errors, it may be concluded that the procedures are sufficiently accurate for the practical analysis of waters for purposes of geologic and industrial interpretation.

As the procedures were used in several laboratories, an opportunity is afforded for observing their general availability in the hands of different chemists. The average percentage errors for several analysts were between 3.2 and 5.3 per cent. These figures are complicated by the fact that the difference in quality of the waters at various laboratories affected somewhat the accuracy of the determinations; nevertheless the highest average error coincides with the lowest

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average of total solids, and the lowest average error with the highest average of total solids; in other words, the errors of analysis of different chemists follow nearly the same order shown in Table 7, and depend more on the quality of the water than on the personal equation of the analyst.

RELATION BETWEEN SOURCE AND PERCENTAGE OF ERROR.

After the analyses had been tabulated by rivers, the average percentage of error of the individual analyses of water from each river was computed. Then, by applying the criteria for rejecting estimates (see p. 38), abnormal figures in the analyses were detected and omitted from the tabulations, and the remaining figures in each set were averaged in order to show the average condition of the waters, the average percentage error of the individual analyses, the percentage of error of the averages, and the average total dissolved solids of each river. The plus signs in the last column of the following table indicate that the bases are in excess, and the minus signs indicate that the acidic radicles are in excess:

TABLE 8.—*Average percentage of errors of combining weights.*

Source (river, except as noted).	Sampling station.	Average total dissolved solids (parts per million).	Average percentage of error of individual analyses.	Percentage of error of average.
Brazos	Waco, Tex	1,136	2.1	− 0.6
Wabash	Logansport, Ind	807	2.2	− 2.5
Arkansas	Little Rock, Ark	630	2.1	− 0.2
Red	Shreveport, La	561	2.1	+ 1.8
Minnesota	Shakopee, Minn	480	3.4	− 0.3
Missouri	Florence, Nebr	454	2.8	− 0.7
White	Indianapolis, Ind	450	2.1	− 0.8
Platte	Columbus, Nebr	437	2.9	+ 0.6
Missouri	Kansas City, Kans	426	3.9	− 0.4
Missouri	Ruegg, Mo	346	3.6	− 0.1
Wabash	Vincennes, Ind	336	3.3	− 0.8
Des Moines	Keosauqua, Iowa	312	3.1	+ 1.3
Platte	Fremont, Nebr	302	2.6	+ 0.5
Maumee	Toledo, Ohio	298	2.3	+ 0.8
North Platte	North Platte, Nebr	294	2.6	+ 1.9
Miami	Dayton, Ohio	289	1.5	+ 0.2
White	Azalia, Ind	279	3.4	+ 0.1
Grand	Grand Rapids, Mich	258	1.7	+ 0.4
Iowa	Iowa City, Iowa	247	3.1	+ 1.4
Muskingum	Zanesville, Ohio	244	3.9	− 0.6
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo, Mich	242	3.6	+ 1.9
Cedar	Cedar Rapids, Iowa	228	3.2	+ 0.3
Mississippi	Memphis, Tenn	202	4.9	+ 4.6
Mississippi	Minneapolis, Minn	200	4.1	+ 1.0
Youghiogheny	McKeesport, Pa	197	4.5	+ 1.6
Mississippi	New Orleans, La	166	.....	+ 4.0
Shenandoah	Millville, W. Va	140	3.2	+ 2.1
St. Lawrence	Ogdensburg, N. Y	[a] 134	1.1	− 1.2
Lake Erie	Buffalo, N. Y	[a] 133	1.4	− 0.8
Potomac	Cumberland, Md	130	4.2	− 0.5
Cumberland	Kuttawa, Ky	124	4.5	+ 2.7
Tennessee	Knoxville, Tenn	122	4.7	− 0.3
Cumberland	Nashville, Tenn	119	5.0	+ 3.6
Lake Michigan	St. Ignace, Mich	[a] 118	0.9	+ 0.2
Susquehanna	Danville, Pa	112	3.9	+ 0.3
Hudson	Hudson, N. Y	108	3.0	+ 1.4
Lake Huron	Port Huron, Mich	[a] 108	1.7	+ 1.5
Kentucky	Frankfort, Ky	104	4.5	+ 3.0
Tennessee	Gilbertsville, Ky	101	6.4	+ 3.5

[a] Double portions of water used for analysis.

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TABLE 8.—*Average percentage of errors of combining weights*—Continued.

Source (river, except as noted).	Sampling station.	Average total dissolved solids (parts per million).	Average percentage of error of individual analyses.	Percentage of error of average.
Wisconsin	Portage, Wis	98	9.8	+ 8.1
Lehigh	South Bethlehem, Pa	95	3.6	+ 1.0
Tombigbee	Epes, Ala	94	5.3	+ 5.7
Chippewa	Eau Claire, Wis	90	11.8	+10.0
Susquehanna	West Pittston, Pa	90	4.3	− 0.3
James	Richmond, Va	89	3.7	+ 0.4
Allegheny	Kittanning, Pa	87	2.5	+ 2.1
Raritan	Bound Brook, N. J	85	4.0	+ 2.0
Alabama	Selma, Ala	82	7.3	+ 6.3
Oostanaula	Rome, Ga	82	4.5	+ 9.0
Monongahela	Elizabeth, Pa	81	4.5	− 0.4
Roanoke	Randolph, Va	79	3.5	− 0.4
Oswegatchie	Ogdensburg, N. Y	77	7.2	+ 4.9
Cahaba	Birmingham, Ala	76	6.2	+ 6.0
Susquehanna	Williamsport, Pa	74	5.7	+ 0.9
Wateree	Camden, S. C	73	4.8	+ 5.1
Neuse	Raleigh, N. C	73	4.7	+ 1.0
Dan	South Boston, Va	71	4.0	− 1.4
Delaware	Lambertville, N. J	70	5.5	+ 0.4
Ocmulgee	Macon, Ga	69	5.0	+ 8.5
Pedee	Pee Dee, N. C	69	3.4	+ 9.1
Oconee	Dublin, Ga	68	5.0	+ 3.9
Flint	Albany, Ga	67	6.9	.....
Saluda	Columbia, S. C	62	5.1	.....
Savannah	Augusta, Ga	60	6.6	+11.7
Lake Superior	Sault Ste. Marie, Mich	[a] 60	2.0	+ 1.5
Pearl	Jackson, Miss	59	3.6	+ 4.4
Cape Fear	Wilmington, Del	57	4.4	+ 3.0
Chattahoochee	West Point, Ga	52	5.8	+ 8.5
Androscoggin	Brunswick, Me	48	.....	.....

[a] Double portions of water used for analysis.

The average percentage of error of the combining values in the individual analyses increases inversely with the total solids, with few exceptions, as might be anticipated from the results in Table 7. The percentages of error of the averages do not bear any fixed relation to the percentages of error of the individual analyses, except that the former are usually smaller. This decrease is due partly to the elimination of abnormal estimates before computing the averages, but calculation of averages without omitting any figures has proved that only a small part of the decrease is due to that factor, and it is reasonable to conclude, therefore, that a portion of the error is variable. A considerable part of the difference between the error of the average and the error of the individual analyses is caused apparently by variable manipulative errors that tend to neutralize each other in the average. A few of the rivers, notably the Oswegatchie at Ogdensburg, N. Y., the Delaware at Lambertville, N. J., the Chippewa at Eau Claire, Wis., and the Wisconsin at Portage, Wis., have high percentages of error of the individual analyses, and all except Delaware River have high positive errors in the averages. The errors of nearly all the analyses of water from these four rivers are positive; that is, the bases are higher than the acids. It is significant that all

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these rivers are high in organic matter of vegetable origin, and possibly organic acids are present in equilibrium with a portion of the bases.

RELATION BETWEEN AMOUNT OF WATER AND PERCENTAGE OF ERROR.

Regular amounts of water for the individual determinations were used in most of the analyses that have been discussed. Double the regular amounts were, however, used in the analyses of 60 waters from the Great Lakes and from St. Lawrence River, and half the regular amounts were used for 600 waters, the errors of which are not included in Tables 6 and 7. The average percentage of error of combining values of the lake waters is 1.4 per cent, and the average of dissolved solids is 111 parts per million. The same figures for analyses made with the usual amounts of water are 3.7 and 230, respectively, and the corresponding averages for analyses made with half the regular amounts of water are 5.3 and 650. Though the lakes contain very clear carbonated waters with little organic matter in them and the waters in the last set are high in fine, gummy suspended matter which complicates the analysis, yet the figures just given indicate a relation between the amount of water that is used and the percentage of error of the analysis, thus giving additional evidence in favor of the conclusion that the errors have a large variable proportion. General experience in the laboratory has shown that it is better to use double portions of water when dissolved solids are less than 70 parts per million and to run duplicate determinations with smaller amounts of water when dissolved solids exceed 600 parts per million.

REJECTION OF ANALYSES.

Table 9 shows the bases on which analyses or parts of analyses were rejected. The limits have been fixed in accordance with theoretical computations and experience gained in practical work.

TABLE 9.—*Criteria for rejecting analytical data.*

Parts per million.				Per cent.
Dissolved solids.		Maximum excess of total dissolved solids over sum of constituents.	Maximum excess of sum of constituents over total dissolved solids.	Maximum error of combining values.
Not less than—	Less than—			
.....	50	15	5	15
50	100	20	6	7
100	200	30	8	5
200	500	40	12	4
500	1,000	50	.....	3
1,000	2,000	.....	.....	2

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Analyses exceeding these limits should be subjected to careful scrutiny, and doubtful estimates should be either repeated or rejected. Due allowance should be made for organic matter that may be present, and an excess of the sum of the constituents over dissolved solids should be more carefully scrutinized than the opposite condition.

METHOD OF EXPRESSING ANALYTICAL RESULTS.

STATEMENT IN PARTS PER MILLION.

The results of the analyses in this paper are stated in parts per million, and though the amounts of water for examination were measured by volume the mineralization is usually so low that the figures may be considered to represent parts per million by weight. Simplicity of computations, avoidance of fractions, and certainty of the basic unit make this decimal system especially satisfactory for practical purposes. Expression of the results of water analyses in parts per million has been generally adopted by sanitary and research chemists and by many technical chemists, and the exclusive employment of this unit industrially is delayed only by more or less objectionable precedent.

For the convenience of those who may desire to transfer the results in this volume to other forms of expression it may be stated that an amount in parts per million multiplied by 0.058 gives the equivalent in grains per United States gallon of 231 cubic inches; multiplied by 0.07 gives the equivalent in grains per imperial gallon, and multiplied by 0.00833 gives the equivalent in pounds per thousand gallons.

STATEMENT IN IONIC FORM.

The analytical methods commonly applied to the examination of water permit the estimation of the elements and radicles that are present. They also enable the determination of the total amount of mineral matter in solution, and by the treatment with dilute alcohol employed by Dudley,[a] the Kennicott Water Softener Company,[b] and others they allow more or less approximate separation of the incrusting from the nonincrusting constituents. But, further than this, ordinary chemical tests contribute little to knowledge regarding the chemical composition of mineral waters, and consequently the exact amounts of the different salts in solution are largely matters of conjecture. In an ordinary mineral water, for instance, it is customary to determine by analysis the amounts of the several ingredients—silica, iron, aluminum, calcium, magnesium, sodium,

[a] Personal communication from Dr C. B. Dudley, chief chemist, Pennsylvania Lines.

[b] Method of water analysis, published by the Kennicott Water Softener Company, Chicago Heights, Ill.

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potassium, the carbonate, bicarbonate, sulphate, and nitrate radicles, chlorine, and other bases and acids that it may be desirable to estimate; but the salts like sodium chloride, potassium carbonate, or magnesium sulphate are not determined as such, and though salts are probably present in solution the analytical data are insufficient to permit the apportionment of the bases among the acids.

According to the dissociation theory advanced by Arrhenius and supported by the exhaustive researches of physical chemistry, a salt in solution becomes more or less thoroughly ionized, and its ingredients exist not only in molecular condition but also in the ionic state, the extent of dissociation being dependent on the nature of the salt and on other factors. All the bases present are in equilibrium, more or less, with all the acids, but with information only as to the amount of the elements and radicles that are in a natural water it becomes mathematically impossible to calculate the correct amounts of the different salts in solution. Yet many water analysts have been accustomed to make such combinations in accordance with rules that may appear reasonable or advisable at the time. As such rules are necessarily arbitrary in their nature, however, reports by different analysts are frequently so widely divergent in form as to be incapable of comparison with each other. As Clarke[a] has so aptly stated it, "The result is a meaningless chaos of assumptions and uncertainties." Reference to directions given by various authors[b] shows the divergence of practice in uniting the bases and acids when combinations are computed, and it suggests the complications that occur in practice. Handy[c] has called particular attention to the confusion in methods of computation, and McGill,[d] Kimberley,[e] and others also mention it.

There is at present a well-defined desire among chemists to break away from the misleading conventions imposed by statement in combinations by presenting and discussing analytical data in a form that avoids as far as possible the personal equation of the analyst. Haywood and Smith[f] have proposed for classifying on the ionic basis mineral waters in respect to their therapeutic action a scheme that will undoubtedly be entirely practicable with some additions and modifications suggested by its extended use. A system of

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[a] Clarke, F. W., The data of geochemistry: Bull. U. S. Geol. Survey No. 330, 1908, p. 54.

[b] Walter, G., and Gärtner, A., Tiemann-Gärtner's Handbuch der Wasser, Braunschweig, 4th ed., 1895, p. 357. Fresenius, C. R., Quantitative chemical analysis, 2d American ed., 1897, p. 674. Stillman, T. B., Engineering chemistry, 1897, p. 65. Wanklyn, J. A., Water analysis, 9th ed., 1894, p. 110.

[c] Handy, J. O., Water softening: Eng. News, vol. 51, 1904, p. 500; also Proc. Eng. Soc. Western Pennsylvania, vol. 19, 1903, p. 659.

[d] McGill, Anthony, Boiler feed waters: Bull. Am. Ry. Eng. and Maintenance of Way Assoc. No. 6, 1905, p. 612.

[e] Kimberley, A. E., The chemical phases of a water-softening problem: Jour. Infect. Dis., Suppl. No. 1, May, 1905, p. 157.

[f] Haywood, J. K., and Smith, B. H., Mineral waters of the United States: Bull. Bur. Chem., U. S. Dept. Agr., No. 91, 1905, p. 9.

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formulas evolved by Stabler[a] and based on the ionic form reduces the classification of waters for steaming and for general industrial use to mathematical certainty and makes it apparent that the fundamental data obtained by actual analysis are sufficient for determining the value of a natural water and for estimating the cost of purifying it in general industrial operations. Further evidence of the desire to effect a reform in the methods of reporting water analyses is furnished by the resolutions adopted by scientific associations. As early as 1886 a committee[b] appointed by the Chemical Society of Washington recommended that all analyses of water should be stated in terms of the radicles found, whether elementary or compound, meaning thereby the immediate results of the actual analysis; and though the committee recommended that the combinations deemed most probable by the chemist making the analysis should also be stated, they were careful to avoid any recommendation as to the manner of combining the analytical results, because the views of chemists would probably differ so much in that respect. The report of this committee was adopted by section C of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1887,[c] but two years later a committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science,[d] while agreeing with the American Association in reporting the analytical data obtained by direct determination, disapproved the statement of the mineral ingredients combined as salts. Since that time many other scientific organizations in America and in Europe have recommended the statement of the actual results instead of the combinations deduced by the chemist. At the Fifth International Congress of Applied Chemistry[e] in 1903, the discussion of two papers on methods of expressing the results of a water analysis indicated that many of the chemists favored the ionic form of statement, and at the Sixth International Congress Christomanos[f] recommended that the simple statement of the acidic and basic ions in parts per million be made in all water analyses.

The ionic form of statement appeals particularly to the analytical chemist because it affords an opportunity of stating results that can be checked for their accuracy by persons other than those making the tests. When hypothetical combinations are made, one of three methods of procedure is usually followed—(1) all the bases and acids except the alkalies present in appreciable amount are estimated, and the excess of acids is computed to an equivalent of sodium and

[a] Stabler, Herman, The mineral analysis of water for industrial purposes and its interpretation by the engineer: Eng. News, vol. 60, 1908, p. 355.

[b] Bull. Chem. Soc. Washington No. 2, 1887, p. 35.

[c] Chem. News, vol. 56, 1887, p. 113.

[d] Chem. News, vol. 60, 1889, p. 203.

[e] Bericht V. Internationaler Kongress für angewandte Chemie, vol. 1, 1903, p. 261.

[f] Christomanos, A. C., Bericht über die Arbeiten der VI. Unter-Kommission der Internationalen Analysen-Kommission: Atti del VI. Congresso Internazionale di Chimica Applicata, vol. 7, 1907, p. 213.

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potassium salts; or (2) all the bases and acids except the carbonates are estimated, and the excess of bases computed to an equivalent in carbonates; (3) if all the bases and acids are determined, it is necessary to "doctor" the figures of the hypothetical combinations in order properly to balance the bases and the acids. These methods of procedure effectively conceal errors of technique and leave it entirely to the judgment of the analyst whether his error of closure is too great or too little, and the evidence on which his judgment is based is completely masked because the hypothetical combinations show no error at all. On the other hand, the ionic form of statement, because it gives the determined elements and radicles, makes it possible to balance the acids against the bases and to determine the probable accuracy of the work.

In brief, it may be said that the ionic form of presenting the results of an analysis of a mineral water gives a statement of facts and not of opinion. The form is entirely practical and presents the actual results for the consideration and criticism of persons other than those making the tests. As it is in accordance with the generally accepted views based on our knowledge of chemistry, the analyses in this volume have been stated in that way.

LOCATION OF SAMPLING STATIONS.

The location of the sampling stations, the names of the collectors, and information regarding immediate surroundings likely to influence the quality of the water are given in the table which follows, and the list is arranged alphabetically by names of the rivers and lakes. If stream-gaging data are available the location of the gaging station is stated, together with its distance above (+) or below (−) the sampling station. Several factors were necessarily considered in determining the location of the points at which samples of water were to be collected. The relative importance of the streams from a geologist's standpoint, particularly in regard to denudation, was given much weight; and practical considerations in relation to the industrial uses of the waters, the procurement of collectors, the shipment of samples, and other more or less local features influenced the selection.

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Source of samples (river, ocean, as noted) and location of same, gaging station.	Gaging station: Location, show top, ft. above or below gage, and whether gage is [illegible]	Maintained by	Name of collector.	Remarks regarding collection of samples.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from iron highway.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from Market Street Bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Above dam.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	From waterworks intake.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Do.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Do.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from suspension bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	From intake of I. C. R. R.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	From waterworks intake.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from ferryboat.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from Montgomery Street Bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Midstream from highway bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

List of sampling stations—Continued.

Source of sample (river, except as noted) and location of sampling station.	Gaging station.		Name of collector.	Remarks regarding collection of samples.
	Location, showing distance, in miles, above (+) or below (−) sampling station.	[a] Maintained by—		
James, Richmond, Va.	Same	W. B.	Beverley Richardson	Above city.
Kalamazoo, Kalamazoo, Mich.	Allegan, −30	G. S.	Morris Christlieb	Midstream.
Kankakee, Kankakee, Ill.	None		A. L. Straley	From waterworks intake.
Kaskaskia:				
Carlyle, Ill.	Same	Ill.	George Schilling	Do.
Shelbyville, Ill.	do	Ill.	Isaac Nutt	Midstream from old dam.
Kentucky, Frankfort, Ky.	do	W. B.	D. L. Holland	Midstream.
Lehigh, South Bethlehem, Pa.	Mauch Chunk, +30	W. B.	H. M. Ueberroth	From waterworks intake.
Little Vermilion, Streator, Ill.	None		R. D. Huggans	In current.
Little Wabash, Carmi, Ill.	Newhaven, −20	Ill.	Samuel Morgan	Do.
Maumee, Toledo, Ohio	None		J. M. Wisler	From waterworks intake.
Miami, Dayton, Ohio	Same	W. B.	B. F. Glass	
Michigan (Lake), St. Ignace, Mich.	Mackinaw, 5	E. C.	Albert Boynton	Midchannel from ferryboat.
Minnesota, Shakopee, Minn.	Mankato, +60	W. B.	R. C. Strunk	Midstream from highway bridge.
Mississippi:				
Minneapolis, Minn.	Anoka, +20	G. S.	J. H. McConnell	From upper waterworks intake.
Moline, Ill.	Same	Ill.	Magnus Olsen	From waterworks intake.
Quincy, Ill.	Hannibal, Mo.; −15	W. B.	F. J. Brinkoetter	Do.
Chester, Ill.	Same	W. B.		From intake of state penitentiary.
Memphis, Tenn.	do	W. B.; E. C.	T. D. Shroyer	
New Orleans, La.	Carrolton, +5	E. C.	J. L. Porter	Near new filtration plant.
Missouri:				
Florence, Nebr.	Omaha, −5	W. B.	J. B. Denton	
Kansas City, Kans.	Same, −7 [b]	W. B.	H. A. Sickels	From Quindaro intake.
Ruegg, Mo.	Hermann, +70	W. B.	William Bausch	Midstream from railroad bridge.
Monongahela, Elizabeth, Pa.	Lock No. 4, +10	W. B.	F. E. Hatch	Midstream.
Muskingum, Zanesville, Ohio	Same	G. S.; W. B.	C. J. Crossland	Midstream from bridge.
Neuse, Raleigh, N. C.	None		A. H. Byrum	Near Milburnie.
North Platte, North Platte, Nebr.	Same	G. S.	Henry Deck	Main channel from highway bridge.
Oconee, Dublin, Ga.	do	G. S.; W. B.	W. E. Martin	Midstream from highway bridge.
Ocmulgee, Macon, Ga.	do	G. S.; W. B.	G. E. Lawton	Midstream from bridge.
Oostanaula, Rome, Ga.	do	W. B.	W. M. Chambers	At waterworks pumping station.
Oswegatchie, Ogdensburg, N. Y.	do	G. S.	H. A. Lord	From waterworks intake.
Pearl, Jackson, Miss.	do	G. S.; W. B.	James Hurst	Midstream from highway bridge.
Pee Dee, Pee Dee, N. C.	Cheraw, N. C., −20	W. B.	Richardson	Midstream.
Platte:				
Columbus, Nebr.	Same	G. S.	W. D. Hanson	Midstream from Meridian Bridge.
[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

Potomac, Cumberland, Md	Same	W. B	Joseph L. Sell	In current.
Raritan, Bound Brook, N. J	do	G. S	J. K. Tantum	Midstream from highway bridge.
Red, Shreveport, La	do	W. B.; E. C	D. P. Irvine	Midstream from toll bridge.
Reservoir:				
Cartter, Ill	None		A. A. Justice	
Cypress, Ill	do		Garlan Adams	
Joppa, Ill	do		John Wood	
Marion, Ill	do		R. E. Coler	
Rio Grande, Laredo, Tex	Same	(c)		
Roanoke, Randolph, Va	do	G. S	J. E. Figg	Midstream from railroad bridge.
Rock:				
Rockford, Ill	Rockton, +15	G. S	F. H. Gregory	From waterworks intake.
Sterling, Ill	None		C. A. Yohn	From intake of Illinois Straw Product Co.
St. Lawrence, Ogdensburg, N. Y	Same	E. C	H. A. Lord	In midstream.
Saluda, Columbia, S. C	Chappells, +50	W. B	E. N. Chisholm, jr	In current.
Sangamon:				
Decatur, Ill	Same	Ill	Fred Litterer	From waterworks intake.
Springfield, Ill	None		Gus Obert	Do.
Chandlerville, Ill	Same	Ill	J. W. Martin; John Madden	Midstream from highway bridge.
Savannah, Augusta, Ga	do	G. S.; W. B	C. A. Maxwell	Do.
Shenandoah, Millville, W. Va	do	G. S	W. R. Nicewarner	From bank of stream.
Superior (Lake), Sault Ste. Marie, Mich	Marquette, +160	E. C	Lester Hodges; Alice Hodges	From railroad bridge above locks.
Susquehanna:				
West Pittston, Pa	Wilkes-Barre, +10	G. S.; W. B	J. A. Allan	(d)
Williamsport, Pa	Same	G. S.; W. B	H. H. Guise	Midstream from bridge.
Danville, Pa	do	G. S	E. F. Bell	Do.
Tennessee:				
Knoxville, Tenn	do	G. S.; W. B	Knoxville Water Co	In main current.
Gilbertsville, Ky	Johnsonville, Tenn.; +80.	W. B	Earle Herndon	Midstream from railroad trestle.
Tombigbee, Epes, Ala	Same	G. S	J. C. Horton	Midstream from railway bridge.
Wabash:				
Logansport, Ind	None		John Bender	Midstream above Eel River.
Vincennes, Ind	Mount Carmel, Ill.; −30.	W. B	L. J. Weisenberger	From waterworks intake.
Wateree, Camden, S. C	Same	G. S.; W. B	W. C. Brown	Midstream from bridge.
White:				
Azalia, Ind	None		L. E. Davis	
Indianapolis, Ind	do		H. E. Jordan	In main current.
Wisconsin, Portage, Wis	Necedah, −50	G. S	Charles McSorley	Midstream from steel bridge.
Youghiogheny, McKeesport, Pa	West Newton, +10	W. B	National Galvanized Works.	Midstream.

a G. S.=U. S. Geological Survey; W. B.=U. S. Weather Bureau; E. C.=Engineer Corps, U. S. Army; Ill.=Engineering Experiment Station, University of Illinois.
b The sampling station is above the entrance of Kansas River, but the gaging station is below that stream.
c Observations made under direction of the Mexican section of the International (Water) Boundary Commission.
d Samples collected by Spring Brook Water Supply Company from their intake at West Pittston till December, 1906, after which samples were collected near Forest Castle Brewery, Pittston.

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ANALYTICAL RESULTS.

The following tables give the results of the analyses of certain rivers and lakes east of the one hundredth meridian. Each table presents a detailed statement of the results of the analyses of composite samples, arranged in chronological order, followed by lines showing the mean of the analyses and the chemical composition of the anhydrous residue. Wherever gage heights were available they were averaged in sets corresponding to the sampling periods, and this computed average is included in the table.

At the end of the detailed analyses is a table in which the lines showing average quality of the waters analyzed both in parts per million of mineral matter and in percentage composition of the anhydrous residues are assembled. The list of localities in this last table includes 27 in the State of Illinois not included in the preceding detailed statements.

Mineral analyses of water from Alabama River at Selma, Ala.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Nov. 5	Nov. 17	65	22	0.34	.....	19	0.7	12	1.6	.....	0.0	46	.....	0.3	0.2	79	3.8
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	180	97	.54	.....	40	.6	12	.8	.....	.0	41	.....	.5	2.0	91	17.1
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	155	118	.76	.....	34	.8	11	1.2	.....	.0	39	.....	.6	1.8	82	11.0
Dec. 8	Dec. 17	180	145	.80	.....	31	.5	9.6	1.6	.....	.0	32	.....	.3	2.0	78	7.0
Dec. 18	Jan. 1	80	49	.61	.....	20	.5	11	Tr.	.....	.0	31	.....	.4	.....	78	10.7
Jan. 2	Jan. 13	50	42	.84	.....	21	.20	8.3	4.4	.....	.0	44	.....	.3	3.5	83	19.5
Jan. 14	Jan. 23	35	21	.60	.....	20	.40	16	2.8	.....	.0	44	.....	.8	3.2	73	7.7
Jan. 24	Feb. 2	65	45	.69	.....	26	.30	8.4	1.6	.....	.0	37	.....	.1	4.5	67	7.5
Feb. 3	Feb. 12	100	62	.62	.....	26	.5	8.2	2.4	.....	.0	32	.....	.8	2.8	66	27.9
Feb. 13	Feb. 24	25	19	.76	.....	10	.5	14	1.2	.....	.0	44	.....	.4	3.0	58	9.4
Feb. 25	Mar. 6	260	195	.75	.....	22	.10	15	2.0	.....	.0	46	.....	.3	1.0	79	23.0
Mar. 7	Mar. 16	160	124	.78	.....	28	.10	10	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	3.0	70	20.8
Mar. 17	Mar. 26	95	86	.91	.....	20	.20	15	1.2	.....	.0	49	.....	.3	1.5	70	9.3
Mar. 27	Apr. 5	40	41	1.02	.....	20	.20	16	1.6	.....	.0	51	.....	.4	2.5	72	6.3
Apr. 6	Apr. 15	95	89	.93	.....	22	.40	15	5.2	.....	.0	58	.....	.1	1.5	80	7.4
Apr. 16	Apr. 25	195	176	.90	.....	22	.5	12	5.2	.....	.0	51	.....	.2	3.0	76	13.3
Apr. 26	May 5	220	184	.84	.....	30	.40	10	3.6	.....	.0	41	.....	.1	2.0	74	16.1
May 6	May 15	90	70	.78	.....	19	.40	12	2.8	.....	.0	.....	.....	.1	2.5	63	16.5
May 16	May 25	312	228	.73	.....	13	1.2	13	2.3	3.2	.0	43	10	1.3	1.2	94	23.9
May 26	June 3	165	117	.71	.....	15	1.0	11	2.6	.....	.0	48	13	.4	1.8	90	12.7
June 6	June 15	195	157	.80	.....	25	1.3	13	2.8	5.6	.0	46	9.4	1.6	1.7	98	9.9
June 16	June 25	90	101	1.12	.....	17	.5	15	4.8	6.7	.0	.....	14	1.2	2.4	90	6.0
June 26	July 6	205	139	.68	.....	11	.35	18	2.3	6.7	.0	61	8.7	.9	2.1	86	7.2
July 7	July 16	210	126	.60	.....	22	1.1	15	4.5	5.5	.0	55	.....	1.6	2.1	104	4.0
July 17	July 26	125	86	.69	.....	16	.48	17	5.8	.....	.0	67	10	1.6	3.0	105	4.4
July 28	Aug. 6	325	203	.62	.....	17	1.1	15	5.3	8.9	[b]Tr.	50	13	1.2	1.8	99	5.4
Aug. 7	Aug. 17	230	141	.61	.....	25	1.0	15	.....	9.5	.0	.....	12	1.6	2.7	101	3.8
Aug. 18	Aug. 27	160	58	.36	.....	23	1.2	13	.....	7.8	.0	60	9.4	1.1	2.0	110	2.7
Aug. 28	Sept. 6	100	59	.59	.....	21	1.0	16	4.8	5.7	.0	59	8.7	.4	2.5	105	1.4
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	80	65	.81	2.2	21	Tr.	15	4.0	8.1	.0	68	4.8	1.0	2.2	88	2.1
Sept. 18	Sept. 27	90	70	.78	2.2	17	.03	14	4.1	7.4	.0	66	5.0	1.0	2.4	82	2.0
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	180	105	.58	2.8	11	Tr.	12	3.0	6.7	.0	56	3.7	1.1	2.4	64	4.7
Oct. 8	Oct. 17	90	50	.56	1.	12	.03	12	2.9	9.0	.0	57	4.4	.9	2.3	68	1.5
Mean		141	100	.72	.....	21	.53	13	2.9	7.0	.0	48	9.0	.7	2.3	82	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	26.2	[c].9	16.2	3.6	8.7	29.4	.....	11.2	.9	2.9	.....	.....

[a] Analyses November 5, 1906, to May 15, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 16 to September 6, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 8 to October 17, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Allegheny River at Kittanning, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 13	Sept. 23	19	26	1.37	0.2	12	Tr.	21	4.2	19	0.0	51	35	0.0	28	140	2.49
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	15	21	1.40	1.2	8.6	0.06	22	4.0	19	.0	61	25	Tr.	29	142	2.86
Oct. 4	Oct. 14	46	69	1.50	3.5	6.0	Tr.	18	2.0	12	.0	40	19	.6	20	107	5.68
Oct. 15	Oct. 24	21	28	1.33	1.2	11	Tr.	14	1.8	11	.0	34	13	.4	13	87	5.51
Oct. 25	Nov 3	29	63	1.24	1.5	9.2	.1	12	2.2	9.6	.0	37	12	.6	12	81	5.94
Nov. 4	Nov. 14	5	5.2	1.04	.2	7.8	.1	12	1.8	7.6	.0	36	14	.7	13	77	5.11
Nov. 15	Nov. 25	29	45	1.55	2.0	4.4	.2	12	2.2	9.3	.0	37	14	.9	12	74	7.67
Nov. 27	Dec. 5	8	5.2	.65	.2	6.0	.1	12	2.0	9.1	.0	33	14	.9	11	71	5.49
Dec. 6	Dec. 16	65	86	1.32	2.6	4.8	.15	10	3.0	4.4	.0	26	12	1.5	8.2	59	10.30
Dec. 17	Dec. 26	13	13	1.00	.9	7.6	.17	10	3.2	5.0	.0	26	13	1.1	8.4	63	7.79
Dec. 27	Jan. 5	36	40	1.11	1.6	6.2	.22	11	3.6	7.1	.0	28	16	1.7	11	73	8.15
Jan. 7	Jan. 15	38	41	1.08	1.4	5.4	.21	8.5	2.0	5.7	.0	21	12	1.0	6.7	54	11.20
Jan. 16	Jan. 25	35	48	1.37	1.8	5.4	.21	9.2	2.2	5.2	.0	19	14	1.1	7.4	55	10.20
Jan. 26	Feb. 5	6	4.2	.70	.5	7.4	.2	13	3.8	9.1	.0	32	23	1.1	10	80	5.63
Feb. 6	Feb. 16	4	2.6	.65	.4	6.8	.16	15	3.4	9.0	.0	41	23	1.2	13	89	4.60
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	6	6.0	1.00	.2	2.4	.09	16	3.4	9.8	[b]9.4	22	22	.6	16	85	4.89
Feb. 28	Mar. 10	5	2.0	.40	.4	6.8	.13	14	3.2	9.3	.0	34	20	1.1	13	83	5.27
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	....	179	.....	6.5	7.0	.3	9.2	2.2	8.0	.0	28	16	1.5	8.2	65	11.46
Mar. 21	Mar. 31	27	53	1.96	1.5	3.8	.10	7.4	1.6	5.4	.0	24	12	.6	6.0	47	11.47
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	8	7.6	.95	.7	7.0	.13	10	2.6	7.2	.0	29	14	1.3	9.4	67	7.11
Apr. 11	Apr. 20	5	5.4	1.08	.4	6.4	.10	12	2.8	9.4	.0	27	16	1.0	12	73	5.77
Apr. 21	Apr. 30	40	30	.75	1.1	12	.16	9.6	2.4	9.1	.0	27	14	1.0	10	72	8.16
May 1	May 11	19	22	1.16	.9	11	.10	8.6	2.2	9.1	.0	29	12	1.0	7.6	66	8.06
May 11	May 20	19	17	.89	.6	17	.18	10	2.6	8.8	.0	37	12	.7	11	81	6.48
May 21	May 30	29	30	1.04	1.0	5.4	.10	10	1.6	8.0	.0	30	12	.6	11	64	6.99
May 31	June 9	36	29	.80	1.3	14	.15	10	1.9	8.8	.0	43	10	.5	9.1	78	7.82
June 10	June 20	20	22	1.10	.8	7.2	.10	10	2.0	8.5	.0	35	14	.3	9.7	71	6.28
June 26	June 30	18	24	1.33	1.0	7.6	.11	14	2.0	13	.0	45	14	.4	13	88	4.92
July 1	July 10	28	36	1.28	1.2	12	.15	14	2.8	11	.0	44	14	.7	13	89	5.25
July 12	July 22	15	23	1.53	1.0	10	.14	15	3.4	12	.0	45	18	.6	14	94	4.21
July 23	Aug. 1	26	30	1.15	1.1	9.0	.14	17	4.0	14	.0	50	22	.3	17	109	3.27
Aug. 2	Aug. 11	15	19	1.27	.6	10	.12	18	4.4	15	.0	51	22	.3	17	111	2.98
Aug. 12	Aug. 21	5	7.6	1.52	.3	5.4	.10	23	5.4	19	.0	63	26	.2	25	132	1.92
Aug. 22	Aug. 31	2	2.4	1.20	.2	6.4	.13	26	6.0	21	.0	71	30	.1	32	154	1.75
Sept. 1	Sept. 10	19	24	1.26	1.1	8.0	.19	25	6.0	22	.0	67	32	.2	32	155	1.99
Mean		21	30	1.14	1.2	7.9	.13	14	3.0	11	.0	38	17	.7	14	87	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	9.1	[c].2	16.1	3.5	12.7	21.9	....	19.6	.8	16.1	....	.....

[a] Analyses September 13 to December 5, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 6, 1906, to March 31, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 4 to September 10, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Androscoggin River at Brunswick, Me.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1905-6).	Silica (SiO_2).	Fe_2O_3+ Al_2O_3.	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium (Na).	Potassium (K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Apr. 25	6.6	2.1	3.6	1.4	1.7	0.7	.....	6.4	3.0	27
May 2	6.0	1.8	4.6	.8	2.0	.9	.....	9.2	3.3	30
May 9	5.5	1.0	3.7	.6	2.0	.7	.....	9.5	1.0	25
May 16	5.4	1.4	4.3	1.3	1.9	.6	.....	8.2	.6	26
May 23	5.3	1.4	4.4	1.3	1.9	.8	.....	8.6	.9	26
May 30	5.8	2.9	5.8	.9	2.2	1.0	.....	9.6	.9	31
June 6	7.3	3.1	6.2	1.0	2.4	1.3	.....	11	.8	35
June 13	7.5	2.0	6.3	1.5	2.4	.9	.....	11	1.2	35
June 20	6.5	1.8	6.0	1.5	2.0	.8	.....	11	.6	32
June 27	7.8	3.3	6.9	1.2	2.4	.9	.....	9.7	.4	35
July 4	7.5	2.6	5.6	1.2	2.5	.9	.....	9.4	.9	33
July 11	9.5	1.7	5.8	1.7	2.1	.8	.....	11	2.6	37
July 18	8.1	3.2	7.2	1.7	2.5	.8	.....	14	.9	41
July 25	10	4.1	6.1	1.5	2.7	1.2	.....	12	3.0	43
Aug. 1	9.8	3.3	6.3	2.0	2.4	.9	.....	13	3.9	44
Aug. 8	6.7	2.2	5.5	1.4	2.8	.7	.....	9.6	3.5	34
Aug. 15	7.0	2.2	6.9	2.1	2.6	.8	.....	14	3.7	41
Aug. 22	7.6	2.1	6.9	2.0	2.1	1.1	.....	13	3.9	40
Aug. 29	6.8	4.0	7.9	1.6	2.8	1.0	.....	12	3.9	43
Sept. 5	9.0	3.0	8.4	2.2	2.8	1.4	.....	16	3.5	49
Sept. 12	7.4	1.8	5.9	1.1	2.2	.9	.....	8.8	3.5	33
Sept. 19	9.9	4.9	7.7	1.7	3.4	.6	.....	13	3.9	48
Sept. 26	6.2	2.7	8.8	.6	1.3	.7	.....	14	3.0	40
Oct. 3	9.6	2.7	8.4	.7	3.2	.8	.....	14	3.0	48
Oct. 10	9.3	3.1	14	.9	3.8	.9	.....	8.9	1.2	51
Oct. 17	13	4.1	13	.6	3.4	.9	.....	14	3.9	56
Oct. 24	8.3	4.9	11	1.5	3.0	.9	.....	13	3.5	49
Oct. 31	9.4	3.9	7.5	.7	1.7	.7	.....	13	3.0	39
Nov. 7	13	4.6	9.3	.6	1.9	1.6	.....	14	3.5	52
Nov. 15	14	4.6	7.0	.7	3.2	1.2	.....	8.8	3.3	47
Nov. 21	14	3.6	7.8	.8	3.7	1.2	.....	16	3.5	52
Nov. 28	14	4.7	7.7	.7	3.4	1.1	.....	12	3.5	52
Dec. 5	12	5.9	7.9	.3	3.0	1.2	.....	9.1	1.2	45
Dec. 12	7.5	4.1	8.4	.5	2.6	.9	.....	11	1.0	40
Dec. 19	10	3.2	11	.7	2.4	.8	.....	6.4	1.2	40
Dec. 26	9.5	4.5	10	.6	3.3	1.5	.....	16	3.5	53
Jan. 2	9.9	2.0	6.0	1.6	2.3	1.3	.....	15	1.2	47
Jan. 9	11	5.5	9.3	.5	2.4	1.5	.....	9.7	.9	47
Jan. 16	11	2.9	11	1.0	1.7	1.4	.....	15	1.0	52
Jan. 23	10	4.2	8.5	.6	2.8	1.3	.....	10	1.2	43
Jan. 30	8.0	1.8	6.0	.5	3.0	1.3	.....	8.8	.5	34
Feb. 6	9.5	4.6	6.8	.5	2.7	1.4	.....	11	.9	42
Feb. 13	11	2.5	7.2	1.7	2.6	1.3	.....	17	1.2	50
Feb. 20	11	4.0	12	.8	2.2	1.2	.....	15	.4	52
Feb. 27	14	4.3	7.9	.9	2.2	1.2	.....	14	.8	49
Mar. 6	.....	2.6	5.6	.8	2.5	1.2	.....	9.4	3.0	53
Mar. 13	12	2.8	8.8	1.2	2.5	1.4	.....	16	3.5	52
Mar. 20	14	4.9	10	1.2	3.6	1.5	.....	16	3.5	56
Mar. 27	11	4.9	11	.9	2.3	1.3	.....	13	3.3	52
Apr. 3	6.0	3.4	5.6	.6	1.9	1.0	.....	6.1	2.8	31
Apr. 10	4.9	2.0	3.6	.8	2.0	.7	.....	8.9	3.6	27
Apr. 17	4.0	1.0	3.4	.6	1.7	.8	.....	8.7	3.0	24
Mean	9.0	3.2	7.4	1.1	2.5	1.0	.....	12	2.3	42
Per ct. of anhydrous residue[b]	18.6	6.6	15.3	2.3	5.2	2.1	20.3	24.8	4.8	.....

[a] Analyses by F. C. Robinson.
[b] Based on the assumption that the average content of bicarbonates is 20 parts.

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Mineral analyses of water from Arkansas River near Little Rock, Ark.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	270	172	0.64	31	0.30	84	18	351	0.0	230	136	1.8	535	1,285	3.5
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	140	96	.69	20	.30	86	22	381	.0	221	149	Tr.	568	1,339	3.6
Nov. 21	Dec. 2	140	135	.96	24	.9	39	11	123	.0	115	72	.5	186	519	5.2
Dec. 3	Dec. 19	1,000	894	.89	47	2.4	53	14	180	.0	142	95	.4	276	752	8.0
Dec. 20	Jan. 11	320	294	.92	31	1.2	25	8.9	60	.0	76	57	1.5	80	304	10.4
Dec. 14	Jan. 31	1,320	1,567	1.19	.....	.....	40	13	62	.0	106	...	2.4	87	451	15.2
Feb. 2	Feb. 20	275	206	.75	20	.40	57	12	83	.0	155	63	3.8	107	433	8.6
Feb. 21	Mar. 7	220	228	1.04	16	.25	54	13	.....	.0	144	74	3.4	.....	460	8.1
Mar. 8	Mar. 28	450	413	.92	25	1.8	42	9.5	67	.0	131	61	1.2	82	366	9.5
Mar. 29	Apr. 12	235	233	.99	19	.8	45	11	80	.0	140	67	1.5	103	412	6.8
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	290	227	.78	20	.9	32	8.7	49	.0	106	42	1.2	65	287	7.3
Apr. 23	May 2	285	192	.67	22	1.2	42	11	74	.0	102	56	2.0	102	377	7.0
May 3	May 13	1,500	1,073	.72	54	1.8	27	6.9	33	.0	86	32	3.6	37	279	18.0
May 14	May 23	860	961	1.12	56	2.2	32	5.6	41	.0	92	43	6.3	40	305	17.4
May 24	June 2	450	460	1.02	40	1.0	31	2.7	31	.0	100	34	1.8	34	271	11.4
June 20	July 18	2,800	2,730	.97	20	.30	49	13	80	.0	181	72	2.8	87	414	10.6
July 19	Aug. 5	270	165	.61	18	.10	66	17	157	.0	196	103	1.1	213	695	5.3
Aug. 8	Aug. 17	1,000	834	.83	29	.15	96	20	415	.0	181	211	1.5	610	1,500	5.3
Aug. 18	Aug. 29	600	480	.80	13	.06	95	23	261	.0	195	212	4.4	347	1,093	4.0
Aug. 30	Sept. 8	3,000	4,119	1.37	36	.12	71	20	155	.0	189	153	1.3	181	736	5.0
Sept. 9	Oct. 6	280	162	.58	26	.33	72	17	179	[b] 8.4	184	117	.3	265	806	2.8
Oct. 7	Oct. 24	900	811	.90	26	.8	72	16	155	[b] Tr.	157	98	.2	262	774	3.3
Mean		755	748	.88	28	.82	55	13	144	.0	148	93	2.0	203	630	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	4.6	[c] .2	9.0	2.1	23.5	11.9	.....	15.2	.3	33.2	.....	.....

[a] Analyses November 1, 1906, to January 31, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 2 to 20, 1907, by Henry S. Spaulding; February 21 to September 8, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 9 to October 24, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Brazos River near Waco, Tex.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Dec. 14	Dec. 25	675	669	0.99	23	Tr.	113	14	247	0.0	159	222	1.7	382	1,113	4.9
Dec. 26	Jan. 5	110	39	.35	15	0.5	126	20	313	.0	198	241	1.8	533	1,430	3.9
Jan. 6	Jan. 15	30	28	.93	12	.5	102	18	190	.0	197	181	3.5	315	952	3.8
Jan. 16	Jan. 25	30	43	1.44	12	Tr.	107	20	258	.0	182	231	1.7	392	1,128	3.6
Jan. 27	Feb. 6	10	9.6	.96	14	Tr.	129	27	373	.0	195	266	.8	575	1,513	3.6
Feb. 7	Feb. 16	10	18	1.80	16	Tr.	103	24	265	.0	204	197	1.1	354	1,114	3.5
Feb. 17	Feb. 26	20	25	1.25	11	.05	131	30	376	.0	190	276	4.4	564	1,532	3.4
Feb. 27	Mar. 10	20	18	.90	12	.03	77	19	257	.0	242	222	1.7	293	1,004	3.3
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	45	31	.69	12	.05	86	21	193	.0	190	175	.7	283	890	3.0
Mar. 21	Mar. 30	40	48	1.20	14	.05	93	20	267	.0	196	242	Tr.	322	1,068	3.7
Mar. 31	Apr. 9	30	13	.43	11	.10	81	19	182	.0	166	188	Tr.	253	808	3.3
Apr. 11	Apr. 21	75	48	.64	15	.20	88	22	184	.0	171	216	4.2	253	892	2.8
Apr. 22	May 1	20	21	1.05	12	.02	70	22	163	.0	163	202	1.1	228	826	2.6
May 2	May 11	3,100	1,935	.62	65	.9	71	19	94	.0	149	139	3.2	124	648	4.7
May 13	May 22	6,100	4,432	.73	60	1.1	70	7.8	82	.0	140	90	4.2	121	547	6.0
May 23	June 1	4,000	3,400	.85	11	.02	60	6.3	69	.0	118	84	5.6	119	420	7.0
June 2	June 11	6,800	4,936	.72	19	.15	104	13	.....	.0	127	193	4.1	.	908	6.6
June 12	June 21	2,100	1,826	.87	9.6	.02	131	16	182	.0	110	320	5.1	297	1,077	4.8
June 22	July 1	6,400	5,350	.83	31	.5	218	26	346	.0	119	555	1.5	533	1,848	6.4
July 2	July 11	2,000	1,231	.62	26	.6	105	13	155	.0	136	260	2.2	201	848	4.4
July 12	July 22	5,400	4,482	.83	20	.07	136	23	201	.0	123	390	6.0	270	1,161	7.9
July 24	Aug. 2	1,650	1,090	.66	16	.16	99	16	108	.0	127	212	2.6	133	696	4.4
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	262	250	.95	27	.01	149	21	215	.0	133	324	.5	295	1,186	4.0
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	300	194	.65	26	.09	194	26	344	.0	134	494	.4	470	1,677	3.9
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	10	22	2.20	23	.09	178	27	308	.0	147	450	.4	451	1,618	3.5
Sept. 2	Sept. 10	5	.....	...	18	.10	182	28	326	.0	164	451	Tr.	468	1,638	3.0
Sept. 11	Sept. 20	8	29	3.62	59	.7	150	20	300	[b] 6.2	129	377	..	418	1,442	2.9
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	18	23	1.28	31	.26	162	15	306	[b] 3.6	140	402	...	427	1,458	3.0
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	2,200	2,270	1.03	21	.8	118	13	181	[b] 3.6	146	247	...	253	937	5.6
Nov. 11	Nov. 19	2,400	1,980	.83	29	.9	206	7.8	314	[b] 6.0	98	523	.....	482	1,695	5.0
Mean		1,462	1,188	1.03	22	.26	121	19	234	.0	158	279	2.2	338	1,136	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	2.0	[c] 0	11.1	1.7	21.4	7.1	.....	25.5	.2	31.0	.....	.....

[a] Analyses December 14, 1906, to February 6, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 7 to February 26, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 27 to September 10, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 11 to November 19, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Cahaba River near Birmingham, Ala.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). —	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
1	Nov. 11	50	16	0.32	....	20	0.20	14	1.6	.....	0.0	46	.....	0.9	3.0	78	2.2
12	Nov. 21	20	7.2	.36	....	20	.30	14	2.4	.....	.0	46	.....	.8	1.5	72	4.5
22	Dec. 1	55	36	.65	....	21	.40	12	3.6	.....	.0	49	.....	.9	1.8	70	4.2
3	Dec. 13	75	41	.55	....	23	.5	12	.....	.....	.0	51	.....	.7	1.5	74	3.6
24	Jan. 2	100	74	.74	....	20	.40	8.8	0.8	.....	.0	29	.....	.8	2.5	73	8.8
8	Jan. 19	15	9.6	.64	....	14	.20	9.9	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.9	3.4	66	4.8
20	Jan. 31	15	12	.80	....	16	.6	13	.....	.....	.0	49	.....	.4	2.7	72	5.2
1	Feb. 11	35	15	.43	....	23	.40	6.4	1.2	.....	.0	24	.....	.6	1.8	44	14.3
12	Feb. 23	5	3.6	.72	....	8.6	.20	13	Tr.	.....	.0	41	.....	.2	1.5	53	4.2
24	Mar. 5	18	15	.83	....	12	.20	11	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	1.5	49	11.6
6	Mar. 15	25	20	.80	....	13	.30	12	1.6	.....	.0	41	.....	.3	2.5	59	5.6
16	Mar. 25	10	7.0	.70	....	10	.30	14	1.2	.....	.0	46	.....	.4	2.0	59	3.7
26	Apr. 4	10	7.6	.76	....	16	.30	15	2.8	.....	.0	54	.....	.3	1.5	75	2.9
5	Apr. 14	25	23	.92	....	23	.30	18	1.6	.....	.0	58	.....	.3	3.0	92	4.0
15	Apr. 24	90	82	.91	....	14	1.4	10	0.8	.....	.0	37	.....	.2	2.5	52	11.1
25	May 2	265	260	.98	....	19	1.9	9.0	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.1	1.0	50	8.4
y 5	May 14	100	75	.75	....	14	1.2	7.1	3.0	8.8	.0	44	3.6	.7	2.0	62	9.0
y 15	May 24	35	29	.83	....	15	.40	8.5	3.6	6.0	.0	41	4.9	.6	2.5	68	12.2
y 25	June 3	130	119	.92	....	13	.8	8.9	2.9	7.4	.0	42	5.6	.3	2.5	66	8.0
ne 4	June 13	10	10	1.00	....	22	.40	8.3	3.6	5.7	.0	53	4.6	.3	3.0	78	4.1
ne 14	June 24	20	15	.75	....	18	.6	11	4.0	6.3	.0	60	6.9	.6	3.0	87	3.3
ne 25	July 8	20	2.0	.10	....	21	.5	15	3.6	6.0	.0	76	9.5	.8	2.0	99	2.7
ly 9	July 19	15	4.0	.27	....	19	.30	16	3.8	11	.0	74	10	.2	3.0	96	2.4
ly 20	July 31	8	9.0	1.12	Tr.	19	Tr.	22	4.7	10	.0	84	11	1.0	2.4	107	2.7
ug. 1	Aug. 11	7	8.4	1.20	Tr.	11	Tr.	.....	4.1	8.7	.0	55	9.5	1.2	3.0	88	2.1
ug. 12	Aug. 21	5	9.0	1.80	Tr.	12	Tr.	20	4.0	12	.0	78	10	.8	2.2	99	2.2
ug. 22	Sept. 5	5	5.6	1.12	Tr.	15	Tr.	23	2.9	12	[c] 4.8	80	9.9	1.2	3.8	108	1.6
ept. 29	Oct. 9	35	27	.77	1.0	.....	.8	14	2.7	11	[c] Tr.	70	12	.8	.6	127	2.1
ct. 10	Oct. 22	8	12	1.50	.5	13	.22	16	3.0	10	[c] Tr.	60	12	.5	1.4	80	1.6
ct. 23	Nov. 1	6	7.4	1.20	Tr.	10	Tr.	.....	3.0	12	.0	57	13	.3	2.4	86	1.4
Mean		40	32	.81	....	16	.44	13	2.5	9.1	.0	52	8.8	.6	2.2	76	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	....	20.4	[d] .8	16.6	3.2	11.6	32.7	.....	11.2	.7	2.8	....	.....

[a] Analyses November 1, 1906, to May 2, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 14 to July 19, 1907, by W. D. Collins; July 31 to December 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station near Centerville, Ala., 75 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Cape Fear River at Wilmington, N. C.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 2	Oct. 8	11	10	0.91	1.2	10	0.6	5.4	1.0	6.3	0.0	22	2.6	0.0	6.0	64	5.4
Oct. 10	Oct. 23	[c] 16	[c] 17	[c] 1.06	[c] .9	[c] 10	[c] .7	[c] 7.2	[c] 7.6	[c] 67	[c] .0	[c] 20	[c] 12	[c] .0	[c] 130	[c] 247	[c] 4.9
Oct. 25	Nov. 5	11	7.8	.71	.5	8.8	.5	4.8	1.0	6.6	.0	20	2.6	.0	6.2	65	4.8
Nov. 6	Nov. 17	12	10	.83	.6	10	.6	4.6	1.0	6.9	.0	22	2.3	.0	6.5	63	3.6
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	9	8.2	.91	.5	10	.5	4.4	.8	5.7	.0	22	2.3	.0	6.0	59	4.0
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	11	11	1.00	.4	11	.4	5.0	1.0	5.8	.0	22	2.8	.0	6.2	52	2.9
Dec. 8	Dec. 17	14	13	.93	.4	12	.5	5.6	1.2	7.6	.0	29	3.3	.2	6.1	61	4.7
Dec. 18	Dec. 30	19	19	1.00	.9	10	.4	4.6	1.6	6.5	.0	20	2.5	Tr.	.....	53	7.6
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	11	11	1.00	.8	10	.54	5.0	1.0	6.9	.0	.....	3.1	.0	6.5	56	5.8
Jan. 10	Jan. 20	17	17	1.00	.9	8.2	.37	5.0	.6	5.3	.0	22	2.3	Tr.	5.8	44	4.3
Jan. 21	Feb. 1	11	10	.91	.6	10	.4	4.8	1.0	6.8	.0	22	2.8	.0	4.6	52	4.1
Feb. 2	Feb. 13	19	24	1.26	1.0	9.8	.53	4.8	1.0	5.6	.0	27	2.3	1.8	6.1	55	8.9
Feb. 14	Feb. 27	21	32	1.52	1.4	8.6	.61	3.8	.6	4.8	.0	18	2.5	Tr.	6.0	45	10.6
Feb. 28	Mar. 14	29	32	1.10	1.5	7.6	.81	3.8	.6	4.9	.0	21	2.8	.3	5.0	47	13.7
Mar. 15	Mar. 26	29	42	1.45	2.3	18	1.8	4.0	.8	6.4	.0	23	2.6	.0	4.6	65	11.3
Mar. 27	Apr. 6	27	25	.93	1.6	11	1.0	4.4	.8	.....	.0	22	2.8	.4	5.8	50	6.4
Apr. 8	Apr. 18	42	28	.67	2.3	.....	2.1	4.2	.6	.....	.....	.....	2.5	1.0	.....	.....	10.1
Apr. 19	Apr. 30	32	24	.75	1.9	15	1.7	4.4	1.0	6.9	.0	22	2.6	.75	4.6	62	12.5
May 1	May 11	31	25	.81	1.6	14	1.1	4.4	1.4	6.8	.0	24	1.6	.5	6.1	60	10.9
May 13	May 24	28	20	.71	1.2	8.0	.35	4.2	1.0	7.7	.0	20	2.0	.5	6.0	52	6.0
May 25	June 6	25	15	.60	1.0	7.0	.28	4.6	.8	7.9	.0	22	1.6	.5	6.6	50	10.4
June 8	June 21	28	25	.89	1.4	9.2	.75	4.2	1.0	9.0	.0	24	1.6	.5	6.2	58	10.9
June 24	July 4	32	26	.81	1.8	7.2	.65	4.8	1.2	6.1	.0	26	2.0	.3	7.0	62	9.6
July 6	July 17	....	43	.....	1.2	2.6	.13	6.6	.6	11	.0	34	4.0	.0	4.8	48	5.4
July 19	Aug. 1	....	24	.....	1.4	7.6	.88	5.4	1.8	6.6	.0	26	5.4	Tr.	5.4	57	4.4
Aug. 2	Aug. 12	....	18	.....	1.5	6.2	.61	6.4	.6	9.1	.0	29	6.9	Tr.	4.8	56	4.0
Aug. 13	Aug. 24	20	16	.80	1.4	11	1.1	5.5	2.0	12	.0	41	5.8	Tr.	5.4	66	6.6
Aug. 26	Sept. 5	20	19	.95	1.4	8.8	.77	6.5	.8	5.7	.0	24	5.1	Tr.	5.0	61	5.8
Sept. 6	Sept. 18	75	52	.69	4.0	14	1.8	5.6	1.8	8.5	.0	28	5.3	.5	6.6	68	6.4
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	15	14	.93	1.4	11	.79	8.3	1.8	12	.0	39	5.6	Tr.	7.0	75	3.7
Mean		73	21	.92	1.3	9.9	.78	5.0	1.5	7.2	.0	25	3.2	.2	5.8	57	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	21.6	[d] 2.4	10.9	3.3	15.7	26.1	.....	7.0	.4	12.6	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 2 to November 27, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 28, 1906, to April 6, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 8 to July 4, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 6 to October 9, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station near Fayetteville, N. C., 75 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; omitted from the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Cedar River near Cedar Rapids, Iowa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO^3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 6	Sept. 15	80	51	0.64	20	.	29	18	14	[b] 4.8	153	24	0.0	4.3	171	3.5
Sept. 16	Sept. 25	60	59	.98	25	0.10	32	. .	8.7	.0	149	27	2.4	3.0	203	4.1
Sept. 27	Oct. 6	50	20	.40	26	.10	48	16	. .	.0	217	23	3.3	4.0	236	4.1
Oct. 7	Oct. 16	20	26	1.30	23	Tr.	55	21	15	.0	246	28	4.4	3.2	269	3.4
Oct. 17	Oct. 27	15	29	1.94	26	Tr.	52	19	20	.0	229	29	.4	3.3	248	3.3
Oct. 28	Nov. 6	20	16	.80	27	Tr.	58	20	11	.0	255	29	1.8	4.6	277	3.7
Nov. 7	Nov. 16	10	8.4	.84	17	Tr.	60	19	14	.0	263	28	2.2	3.5	285	3.5
Nov. 17	Nov. 26	20	17	.85	15	.05	64	20	16	.0	262	33	2.6	3.8	281	3.6
Nov. 27	Dec. 6	25	20	.80	17	.04	51	20	15	.0	240	33	.9	3.8	258	4.0
Dec. 7	Dec. 16	15	13	.87	21	.10	62	22	17	.0	273	37	4.4	3.8	309	3.7
Dec. 17	Dec. 26	5.0	2.8	.56	13	.10	64	26	16	.0	309	40	4.8	4.0	311	4.3
Dec. 27	Jan. 5	80	56	.70	12	.20	51	17	13	.0	207	..	4.4	3.1	228	4.2
Jan. 6	Jan. 15	20	22	1.10	9.2	.08	47	17	9.7	.0	175	.	5.2	2.5	193	4.4
Jan. 16	Jan. 26	75	71	.95	15	Tr.	42	13	13	.0	167	29	3.6	2.3	193	4.9
Jan. 27	Feb. 5	5.0	4.0	.80	11	.05	61	19	.....	.0	258	31	5.2	3.9	260	4.5
Feb. 6	Feb. 15	80	68	.85	6.4	.05	58	15	14	.0	221	46	5.2	4.8	242	4.2
Feb. 16	Feb. 26	30	35	1.17	4.6	.10	24	6.6	11	.0	87	21	5.8	2.2	119	5.7
Feb. 27	Mar. 7	70	69	.99	9.8	.25	26	9.6	14	.0	....	35	4.6	2.2	151	5.3
Mar. 8	Mar. 19	65	54	.83	14	.18	32	12	12	.0	...	21	3.8	8.8	178	4.7
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	30	37	1.24	12	.15	37	9.4	16	.0	149	26	2.6	2.7	175	4.6
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	135	84	.62	15	Tr.	41	14	9.9	.0	175	29	2.8	2.3	203	4.7
Apr. 9	Apr. 18	30	25	.83	11	.03	53	16	.....	.0	213	34	2.6	2.7	246	4.0
Apr. 19	Apr. 28	10	Tr.	.....	3.0	.05	54	19	8.1	.0	210	46	.6	3.9	250	3.6
Apr. 29	May 8	10	Tr.	.....	3.0	.05	51	20	8.6	.0	230	35	Tr.	3.8	241	3.6
May 9	May 18	10	Tr.	.....	4.0	.01	48	21	11	.0	226	33	.5	3.4	241	3.3
May 19	May 28	95	98	1.03	5.8	.18	...	17	9.8	.0	204	32	3.0	4.2	225	3.4
May 29	June 8	55	57	1.04	11	.02	43	16	8.8	.0	207	.....	2.2	3.4	230	3.7
June 9	June 18	140	174	1.24	14	.02	47	14	7.0	.0	179	29	4.8	1.9	215	5.4
June 19	June 28	80	124	1.55	10	.05	48	13	9.8	.0	209	28	4.2	2.6	244	5.0
June 29	July 9	235	214	.91	15	.15	49	11	15	.0	201	22	8.0	2.9	230	4.5
July 10	July 19	390	356	.91	20	.48	38	11	6.4	.0	145	22	3.1	...	179	6.3
July 20	July 29	105	108	1.03	14	.05	43	13	12	.0	189	22	2.8	2.5	207	6.4
July 30	Aug. 8	65	58	.89	15	.01	55	15	15	.0	234	27	4.4	4.0	248	4.8
Aug. 9	Aug. 18	140	154	1.10	20	.20	40	13	8.6	.0	166	22	2.2	2.8	192	5.2
Aug. 19	Aug. 28	50	62	1.24	10	.05	42	14	9.1	.0	198	23	2.3	3.3	213	4.5
Aug. 29	Sept. 7	50	53	1.06	20	.15	51	14	11	.0	201	29	1.6	2.5	228	4.6
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	10	Tr.	.....	13	.18	57	18	10	.0	253	31	1.9	3.8	253	3.8
Mean		64	61	.97	14	.09	48	16	12	.0	209	30	3.1	3.4	228	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	6.1	[c] .1	20.9	7.0	5.2	44.8	.....	13.0	1.4	1.5	...	....

[a] Analyses September 6, 1906, to February 15, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 16 to 26, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 27 to September 17, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Chattahoochee River at West Point, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 20	Oct. 29	85	50	0.59	.....	16	1.0	6.6	1.2	.....	0.0	24	....	0.0	2.0	50	4.2
Oct. 30	Nov. 8	45	25	.56	.....	30	.6	3.6	.8	.....	.0	19	....	.4	2.5	60	3.4
Nov. 9	Nov. 18	65	37	.57	.....	20	.20	5.7	Tr.	.....	.0	22	....	.4	1.5	54	3.5
Nov. 19	Nov. 29	70	24	.34	.....	26	.7	6.8	1.6	.....	.0	27	....	.6	3.0	71	4.1
Nov. 30	Dec. 9	60	37	.62	.....	30	.8	6.0	2.8	.....	.0	24	....	.7	2.8	77	3.3
Dec. 10	Dec. 19	55	34	.62	.....	32	.5	6.4	2.4	.....	.0	29	....	.4	3.0	81	4.1
Dec. 21	Jan. 1	130	96	.74	.....	32	.9	3.9	Tr.	.....	.0	15	....	.7	1.5	60	4.8
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	85	65	.76	.....	24	.7	2.3	.8	.....	.0	.....	....	.8	2.5	55	5.3
Jan. 12	Jan. 21	25	14	.56	.....	17	.10	4.7	.8	.....	.0	17	....	.8	3.5	59	3.7
Jan. 22	Jan. 31	15	9.0	.60	.....	24	.30	7.4	1.6	.....	.0	29	....	.5	3.5	59	3.5
Feb. 1	Feb. 10	220	169	.77	.....	33	1.2	3.6	1.6	.....	.0	.....	....	.4	1.8	53	7.2
Feb. 11	Feb. 26	55	42	.76	.....	18	.9	4.8	Tr.	.....	.0	15	....	.3	..	56	3.8
Feb. 27	Mar. 8	260	205	.79	.....	25	1.3	4.4	Tr.	.....	.0	15	....	.3	1.5	53	7.7
Mar. 9	Mar. 18	290	166	.57	.....	24	.9	5.6	Tr.	.....	.0	20	....	.4	2.5	53	3.8
Mar. 19	Mar. 28	30	26	.87	.....	11	1.0	6.4	Tr.	.....	.0	22	....	.2	2.5	40	3.6
Mar. 29	Apr. 7	285	264	.92	.....	28	1.4	6.8	Tr.	.....	.0	22	....	.4	3.0	59	3.5
Apr. 8	Apr. 17	190	220	1.16	.....	27	1.1	2.0	Tr.	.....	.0	9.8	....	1.6	1.5	40	3.7
Apr. 18	Apr. 27	185	175	.95	.....	18	1.0	2.5	Tr.	.....	.0	9.8	....	1.3	2.0	33	5.9
Apr. 28	May 7	185	165	.89	.....	16	1.3	3.5	.8	.....	.0	12	....	1.1	1.5	34	4.6
May 8	May 18	350	279	.80	16	22	.03	4.9	1.1	8.8	[b] 8.4	13	4.8	.9	....	57	5.1
May 19	May 28	115	76	.66	7.9	23	.03	5.2	1.9	9.2	[b] 8.4	21	5.0	.9	1.3	65	3.6
May 29	June 7	260	166	64	10	14	.03	3.0	.6	10	.0	26	4.0	1.2	1.7	47	3.7
June 8	June 17	130	91	.70	2.4	16	.03	3.2	1.1	7.2	[b] 3.6	21	3.5	.0	1.0	45	3.1
June 18	June 27	120	81	.67	5.8	11	.00	5.1	1.2	6.7	.0	16	7.6	.7	1.7	42	2.8
June 28	July 7	340	246	.72	13	12	.00	4.9	.7	7.0	[b] Tr.	27	4.0	1.1	2.0	45	3.2
July 9	July 18	450	448	1.00	35	9.0	.00	4.3	.9	7.6	.0	28	3.0	1.0	1.2	36	3.0
July 19	July 28	325	214	.66	12	13	.00	4.0	1.1	8.1	.0	24	3.8	1.1	1.2	40	2.6
July 29	Aug. 7	375	289	.77	21	12	.03	6.0	1.3	9.4	.0	37	6.6	1.2	4.8	63	2.7
Aug. 8	Aug. 17	400	220	.55	10	14	Tr.	3.2	1.0	7.9	.0	24	4.0	1.1	1.8	47	2.6
Aug. 18	Aug. 27	375	242	.64	6.6	15	Tr.	4.2	.6	6.3	.0	28	4.2	1.1	2.0	48	2.6
Aug. 28	Sept. 6	225	121	.54	3.7	17	Tr.	4.9	.5	6.5	.0	27	4.8	1.0	1.8	60	2.0
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	155	129	.83	5.2	12	Tr.	5.1	.8	6.6	.0	27	4.3	.7	1.3	46	2.6
Sept. 27	Oct. 8	185	100	.54	12	18	Tr.	4.9	.4	9.0	.0	29	4.1	1.0	1.8	54	2.5
Oct. 9	Oct. 18	140	98	.70	4.4	8.9	Tr.	5.7	1.0	5.8	.0	27	3.5	.6	1.7	42	2.1
Mean		185	136	.71	.....	20	.47	4.8	.8	7.7	.0	23	4.5	.7	2.1	52	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	38.0	[c] 1.3	9.1	1.6	14.6	21.5	.....	8.5	1.4	4.0	....	....

[a] Analyses October 20, 1906, to May 7, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 8 to October 18, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Chippewa River near Eau Claire, Wis.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 14	Sept. 23	5	Tr.	.....	24	0.20	11	3.7	8.4	0.0	45	12	Tr.	3.2	111	6.4
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	10	Tr.	.....	11	.30	12	4.0	7.1	.0	44	9.0	1.8	2.1	98	6.1
Oct. 4	Oct. 13	5	Tr.	.....	5.8	.20	12	5.1	9.4	.0	45	14	Tr.	1.2	98	5.0
Oct. 14	Oct. 23	5	4.8	0.96	16	.15	13	6.3	7.0	.0	59	19	Tr.	1.3	103	4.9
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	5	9.6	1.92	15	.15	10	5.2	8.1	.0	39	16	Tr.	2.9	102	7.8
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	5	[a]4.8	.96	12	Tr.	16	5.2	8.6	.0	41	13	Tr.	2.3	109	6.8
Nov. 13	Nov. 22	5	Tr.	.....	12	Tr.	12	4.2	.....	.0	33	14	Tr.	1.5	87	6.4
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	15	6.4	.43	16	Tr.	10	.....	7.5	.0	39	17	.0	.9	93	6.5
Dec. 3	Dec. 13	10	4.8	.48	17	.40	12	4.2	9.2	.0	40	19	.0	1.2	94	5.4
Dec. 14	Dec. 25	5	2.8	.56	15	.30	14	4.9	10	.0	53	17	.0	2.0	101	5.2
Dec. 26	Jan. 4	5	Tr.	.....	15	.25	14	5.7	7.3	.0	36	.....	.9	1.5	97	5.0
Jan. 5	Jan. 17	5	Tr.	.....	10	.25	16	5.3	.....	.0	58	13	Tr.	.....	94	4.9
Jan. 18	Jan. 27	10	6.4	.64	12	.40	15	5.8	13	.0	61	9.9	.2	2.7	96	.....
Jan. 28	Feb. 7	5	Tr.	.....	15	.25	17	4.8	5.6	.0	70	12	.8	.4	109	.....
Feb. 8	Feb. 18	5	4.0	.80	15	.25	17	8.5	11	.0	66	10	1.4	.6	97	.....
Feb. 19	Feb. 28	5	Tr.	.....	15	.25	17	4.1	8.7	.0	65	12	1.8	1.6	95	.....
Mar. 1	Mar. 10	5	Tr.	.....	18	.6	19	6.6	7.6	.0	68	15	1.2	1.5	104	.....
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	5	3.2	.64	12	.30	14	.....	9.1	.0	60	16	2.1	2.3	100	5.1
Mar. 21	Mar. 31	20	34	1.70	4.6	.37	.....	2.8	5.4	.0	25	15	1.2	1.5	59	11.2
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	10	10	1.00	6.8	.19	6.2	3.7	5.2	.0	.....	18	1.1	.4	58	11.2
Apr. 11	Apr. 20	5	7.6	1.52	6.8	.15	11	2.4	8.5	.0	22	14	.9	.1	72	7.9
Apr. 21	Apr. 30	Tr.	Tr.	.....	12	.18	9.8	3.7	4.6	.0	29	17	Tr.	.7	73	7.0
May 1	May 12	Tr.	Tr.	.....	9.6	.24	.....	5.2	4.4	.0	39	16	Tr.	Tr.	72	7.3
May 13	May 22	5	Tr.	.....	7.4	.18	8.2	2.3	.....	.0	28	11	Tr.	.1	63	8.7
May 23	June 1	5	Tr.	.....	7.0	.19	7.0	2.4	4.9	.0	28	9.9	Tr.	2.4	89	8.2
June 2	June 11	5	Tr.	.....	5.8	.16	10	3.0	4.3	.0	38	8.7	.8	Tr.	68	6.6
June 12	June 21	5	Tr.	.....	5.2	.25	10	4.3	5.9	.0	46	15	Tr.	.2	87	6.0
June 22	July 1	5	Tr.	.....	10	.18	15	.....	9.5	.0	56	14	1.2	.8	90	6.0
July 3	July 12	10	9.2	.92	9.8	.20	13	4.4	7.6	.0	45	15	1.0	.2	81	6.3
July 13	July 22	5	Tr.	.....	10	.30	14	.....	7.3	.0	.....	10	.5	.3	84	5.1
July 23	Aug. 2	7	Tr.	.....	12	.21	17	.....	10	.0	59	9.9	Tr.	.3	93	4.8
Aug. 3	Aug. 13	5	Tr.	.....	14	.15	16	6.9	8.6	.0	61	.....	4.4	.3	90	.45
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	20	22	1.10	13	.19	16	.....	11	.0	55	12	Tr.	Tr.	94	.47
Aug. 24	Sept. 2	5	Tr.	.....	11	.09	13	5.2	13	.0	59	12	.4	.3	88	.44
Sept. 3	Sept. 12	5	Tr.	.....	14	.12	16	6.1	11	.0	72	15	.3	1.0	108	.42
Mean		7.0	3.7	.97	12	.22	13	4.7	8.1	.0	48	14	.6	1.1	90	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	15.5	[b].4	16.8	6.1	10.5	30.5	.....	18.0	.8	1.4	.....	.....

[a] Analyses September 14, 1906, to February 7, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 8 to February 28, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 1 to September 12, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Colorado River at Austin, Tex.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1905-6). From—	To—	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Oxides of iron and aluminum ($Fe_2O_3 + Al_2O_3$).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium (Na).	Potassium (K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Aug. 1	Aug. 10	2,480	19	3.6	53	7.9	30	1.8	0.0	177	41	34	300	2.5
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	28	23	4.0	58	12	42	3.6	.0	199	52	37	322	1.4
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	22	28	1.4	53	15	45	5.3	.0	171	38	47	316	.9
Aug. 31	Sept. 9	24	26	2.8	69	16	58	3.6	.0	220	39	44	296	.9
Sept. 10	Sept. 18	144	27	1.4	56	14	48	7.5	.0	212	45	53	326	1.3
Sept. 22	Sept. 29	124	25	2.6	57	15	103	7.0	.0	156	110	137	498	1.7
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	276	30	1.0	73	15	52	4.3	.0	187	60	98	432	1.4
Oct. 10	Oct. 19	302	20	1.8	49	10	72	11	.0	175	34	32	244	1.7
Oct. 20	Oct. 29	742	27	2.0	52	10	49	8.3	.0	161	37	40	248	1.8
Oct. 31	Nov. 8	148	21	2.4	47	9.1	.....	.....	.0	174	29	32	226	1.0
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	466	22	1.8	54	13	.....	.....	.0	173	33	38	252	1.9
Nov. 20	Nov. 29	46	19	2.4	47	12	.....	.....	.0	173	34	41	246	1.1
Nov. 30	Dec. 9	60	17	3.2	46	15	30	3.6	.0	197	24	49	268	1.0
Dec. 10	Dec. 19	26	14	1.8	47	17	31	4.4	.0	201	21	44	280	1.1
Dec. 20	Dec. 29	18	15	1.2	47	19	27	1.2	.0	223	18	48	294	1.1
Dec. 30	Jan. 8	50	10	2.0	53	20	32	4.3	.0	238	26	56	366	1.1
Jan. 9	Jan. 18	36	8.8	4.6	54	21	34	3.8	.0	238	28	53	330	.9
Jan. 19	Jan. 28	0	9.0	2.8	49	21	34	4.0	.0	228	29	60	324	1.0
Jan. 29	Feb. 7	22	10	3.2	48	21	38	3.5	.0	220	24	55	298	.9
Feb. 8	Feb. 17	76	14	3.4	51	22	35	3.4	.0	219	29	48	290	1.1
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	10	12	3.6	47	22	34	3.6	.0	214	25	51	306	1.1
Feb. 28	Mar. 9	38	9.0	1.2	48	24	35	4.0	.0	218	42	66	324	.9
Mar. 10	Mar. 19	42	.....	1.6	48	23	19	4.0	.0	221	39	59	320	.9
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	14	8.8	1.8	49	24	.....	.....	.0	223	35	86	336	1.2
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	94	14	2.4	52	21	39	.....	.0	239	35	56	338	1.4
Apr. 9	Apr. 18	114	11	2.6	59	25	44	.....	.0	217	46	75	320	1.4
Apr. 19	Apr. 28	82	14	3.0	48	24	64	.....	.0	204	80	79	402	2.7
Apr. 29	May 8	78	14	6.4	56	24	53	3.5	.0	205	89	75	426	1.4
May 9	May 18	90	18	6.8	68	24	77	4.9	.0	180	112	113	536	1.2
May 19	May 28	600	14	3.6	45	21	90	4.4	.0	184	102	134	550	2.6
May 29	June 7	1,256	19	4.8	57	8.7	51	4.3	.0	154	37	67	294	3.3
June 8	June 17	844	35	7.0	62	17	36	4.2	[b]18	151	30	55	270	3.7
June 18	June 27	484	21	2.8	41	13	51	9.9	.0	166	43	57	308	1.8
June 28	July 7	400	17	4.4	40	6.8	25	8.9	.0	160	18	26	220	2.5
July 8	July 17	1,508	13	4.6	45	10	31	6.9	.0	177	28	52	268	4.9
July 18	July 27	1,882	21	4.4	40	6.5	11	9.2	.0	133	14	24	178	5.3
Mean		351	18	3.1	52	17	44	5.1	.0	195	42	59	321	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	5.4	.9	15.5	5.1	13.1	1.5	28.5	.....	12.5	17.5	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by W. H. Heileman.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

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Mineral analyses of water from Cumberland River near Nashville, Tenn.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 24	Nov. 3	75	58	0.77	.....	29	4.0	33	3.2	.....	0.0	115	.....	0.6	2.0	139	8.8
Nov. 4	Nov. 13	28	15	.54	.....	26	.20	26	1.2	.....	.0	90	.....	.7	3.5	112	8.0
Nov. 14	Nov. 23	30	15	.50	.....	27	.30	24	1.2	.....	.0	76	.....	.8	3.0	109	18.1
Nov. 24	Dec. 3	35	16	.46	.....	28	.20	24	2.0	.....	.0	81	.....	.8	2.5	106	17.1
Dec. 4	Dec. 13	50	37	.74	.....	29	.20	22	2.8	.....	.0	83	.....	.6	2.8	111	9.5
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	75	50	.67	.....	28	.30	27	3.6	.....	.0	85	.....	.5	3.0	114	20.0
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	135	108	.80	.....	33	.20	27	2.8	.....	.0	85	.....	.8	1.0	128	21.3
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	150	132	.88	.....	22	.30	23	.....	.....	.0	81	.....	.6	1.8	110	25.0
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	60	41	.68	.....	31	.10	26	3.6	.....	.0	93	.....	1.0	1.7	118	15.1
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	75	46	.61	.....	20	.40	21	4.4	.....	.0	78	.....	.6	2.0	106	18.7
Feb. 2	Feb. 11	65	40	.62	.....	13	.30	26	3.6	.....	.0	90	.....	.4	2.0	107	14.2
Feb. 12	Feb. 23	90	78	.87	.....	21	.30	22	3.2	.....	.0	83	.....	.3	1.0	97	11.4
Feb. 24	Mar. 5	180	156	.87	.....	31	.30	23	3.6	.....	.0	.....	.....	.4	1.2	114	29.8
Mar. 6	Mar. 16	350	322	.92	.....	31	.10	22	.....	.....	.0	78	.....	.5	1.0	112	28.7
Mar. 17	Mar. 26	110	96	.87	.....	25	.30	24	.....	.....	.0	81	.....	.4	2.0	112	22.1
Mar. 27	Apr. 5	70	62	.88	.....	15	.30	27	4.0	.....	.0	93	.....	.5	2.0	107	10.3
Apr. 6	Apr. 15	135	130	.96	.....	27	.10	20	5.2	.....	.0	78	.....	.2	1.5	100	18.7
Apr. 16	Apr. 25	45	48	1.07	.....	9.6	Tr.	17	7.6	.....	.0	76	.....	1.8	1.5	87	11.6
Apr. 26	May 5	95	119	1.25	.....	12	.20	18	.....	.....	.0	78	.....	1.6	2.0	91	10.3
May 6	May 15	75	63	.84	.....	11	.20	18	6.4	.....	.0	73	.....	1.1	.....	88	24.3
May 15	May 24	85	.....	.....	.....	20	.30	30	3.2	5.7	.0	98	16	2.7	1.4	128	14.0
May 25	June 3	80	48	.60	.....	24	.20	.....	4.5	2.9	.0	110	14	2.0	1.5	150	10.2
June 4	June 13	425	318	.74	.....	20	.8	31	4.1	7.9	.0	100	16	4.3	2.4	146	16.8
June 14	June 23	110	85	.77	.....	17	.35	22	4.1	5.7	.0	82	18	3.2	1.4	121	14.4
June 24	July 3	245	140	.57	.....	14	.24	29	4.7	6.0	.0	115	16	1.9	1.8	138	9.3
July 4	July 14	100	60	.60	.....	15	.25	32	4.5	8.9	.0	113	14	1.4	2.4	140	8.2
July 15	July 25	30	.....	.....	.....	12	.25	31	5.8	11	.0	.....	14	.9	4.8	140	8.1
July 26	Aug. 4	70	38	.54	.....	13	.12	32	.....	8.6	.0	113	9.7	1.7	2.0	122	7.8
Aug. 5	Aug. 14	195	185	.95	.....	7.8	.03	33	.....	13	.0	118	14	1.7	3.3	127	8.0
Aug. 15	Aug. 24	110	52	.47	.....	5.2	.20	36	1.8	15	.0	115	20	.6	2.0	135	7.5
Aug. 25	Sept. 3	80	67	.84	.....	8.2	.20	33	.....	10	.0	102	14	1.6	1.5	125	7.8
Sept. 5	Sept. 14	250	130	.52	.....	14	.45	26	.....	8.2	.0	95	17	.8	2.0	128	8.2
Sept. 25	Oct. 13	450	224	.49	12	24	1.3	26	1.4	11	.0	90	10	1.6	1.8	127	8.8
Oct. 14	Oct. 24	215	82	.38	6.1	28	1.0	24	3.0	16	[b]Tr.	95	13	1.3	3.6	140	8.0
Oct. 25	Nov. 3	45	41	.91	3.0	19	.9	27	0.9	14	[b]Tr.	99	12	1.0	2.4	130	7.4
Mean		126	94	.74	.....	20	.42	26	3.6	9.6	.0	92	14	1.2	2.1	119	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	.....	.....	16.4	[c]5	21.3	2.9	7.8	37.0	.....	11.4	1.0	1.7	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 24, 1906, to May 15, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 15 to September 14, 1907, by Waltop Van Winkle; September 25 to November 3, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal, computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Cumberland River near Kuttawa, Ky.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1907–8). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Jan. 11	Jan. 20	45	29	0.64	.....	29	0.20	27	7.2	.....	0.0	110	.....	0.6	2.7	147	17.1
Jan. 21	Feb. 2	95	68	.72	.....	18	.40	24	3.6	.....	.0	78	.....	1.0	1.7	.....	24.2
Feb. 3	Feb. 12	70	38	.54	.....	25	.30	24	3.6	.....	.0	85	.....	.4	1.5	118	16.3
Feb. 13	Feb. 23	170	136	.80	.....	25	.10	23	.....	.....	.0	85	.....	.6	1.5	104	11.7
Feb. 24	Mar. 7	320	260	.81	.....	31	.20	22	4.8	.....	.0	.....	.....	.3	1.8	108	36.8
Mar. 8	Mar. 17	290	217	.75	.....	38	.40	24	3.2	.....	.0	80	.....	.8	1.5	122	33.4
Mar. 18	Mar. 27	180	164	.91	.....	23	.20	22	5.6	.....	.0	.....	.....	.5	2.5	108	27.5
Mar. 28	Apr. 6	85	60	.71	.....	18	.20	26	.....	.....	.0	102	.....	.4	3.0	124	9.7
Apr. 7	Apr. 16	35	20	.57	.....	10	.10	27	4.0	.....	.0	83	.....	.9	1.5	96	21.1
Apr. 17	Apr. 26	100	85	.85	.....	7.6	.20	26	3.6	.....	.0	80	.....	2.2	2.0	91	10.9
Apr. 27	May 6	95	106	1.12	.....	8.4	Tr.	25	4.8	.....	.0	80	.....	2.9	4.0	94	9.9
May 6	May 15	340	470	1.38	.....	11	.6	27	4.2	8.2	.0	99	7.1	5.0	1.0	112	34.7
May 17	May 26	130	174	1.34	.....	17	.30	31	4.6	7.2	.0	118	7.2	3.0	4.0	131	16.6
May 27	June 5	120	134	1.12	.....	11	.40	33	5.4	4.4	.0	121	13	1.5	4.0	137	10.1
June 6	June 16	490	706	1.62	.....	17	.8	25	3.1	.....	.0	101	6.9	1.7	2.0	122	22.3
June 17	June 28	180	150	.83	.....	14	.40	27	3.4	8.0	.0	105	6.7	2.5	3.5	123	11.1
June 29	July 8	80	71	.89	.....	16	.20	31	3.9	.....	.0	126	8.2	1.9	3.5	137	5.5
July 9	July 18	142	107	.75	.....	12	.20	34	4.2	9.1	.0	.....	8.1	1.5	4.0	135	4.3
July 19	July 29	20	38	1.90	1.0	17	.07	34	4.8	8.2	3.6	111	8.7	1.4	3.9	136	3.7
July 30	Aug. 8	25	35	1.40	1.1	27	.06	36	5.7	10	2.4	124	8.7	1.8	4.2	153	2.8
Aug. 9	Aug. 22	200	123	.62	6.1	24	.26	35	4.6	9.5	2.4	123	8.6	1.6	3.8	152	4.1
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	220	119	.54	6.6	19	.24	35	5.6	11	4.8	112	11	1.4	5.0	149	3.0
Sept. 12	Sept. 21	350	258	.74	12	26	1.2	28	4.6	8.5	Tr.	100	13	3.8	3.0	145	6.9
Sept. 22	Oct. 1	300	224	.75	12	19	.9	21	3.6	6.6	Tr.	73	9.0	3.5	4.2	108	6.2
Oct. 2	Oct. 11	220	170	.77	10	16	.52	29	4.1	6.4	Tr.	96	10	2.2	3.0	125	4.1
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	200	189	.95	11	7.4	.24	28	4.0	6.9	7.2	82	10	.8	3.0	107	4.9
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	150	82	.55	6.6	16	.35	31	4.7	9.4	Tr.	115	10	2.4	5.0	133	1.9
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	90	74	.82	3.5	9.2	.11	34	5.2	7.1	4.8	107	11	2.2	4.8	129	4.0
Nov. 11	Nov. 21	270	287	1.06	12	12	.32	31	4.8	9.0	4.8	99	13	2.0	3.8	128	9.3
Nov. 22	Dec. 1	220	268	1.22	10	13	.54	30	3.7	6.9	Tr.	102	11	2.0	3.0	141	13.0
Dec. 2	Dec. 11	170	112	.66	3.3	17	.04	22	3.4	8.5	.0	.....	10	2.4	2.4	105	7.5
Dec. 12	Dec. 21	70	71	1.02	2.2	14	.04	32	2.2	5.4	.0	106	11	2.3	2.4	126	7.2
Dec. 22	Dec. 31	260	253	.97	7.9	15	.15	34	4.6	8.2	.0	110	12	3.0	2.2	137	14.8
Jan. 1	Jan. 11	240	238	.99	8.0	15	.10	27	3.1	5.7	.0	84	8.9	2.0	2.2	111	.....
Mean		176	165	.92	.....	18	.30	28	4.3	7.8	.9	100	9.7	1.8	3.0	124	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	14.6	c.4	22.8	3.5	6.3	40.6	.....	7.9	1.5	2.4	.....	.....

[a] Analyses January 11 to May 6, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 6 to July 18, 1907, by W. D. Collins; July 19, 1907, to January 11, 1908, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Clarksville, Tenn., 70 miles above.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Dan River at South Boston, Va.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7.) From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept 3	Sept. 13	210	126	0.60	8.9	26	1.4	6.0	2.8	4.2	0.0	41	1.3	Tr.	2.4	75	3.2
Oct. 1	Oct. 11	260	175	.67	9.8	31	2.1	5.2	1.8	7.6	.0	34	2.5	0.8	2.6	82	4.2
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	43	42	.98	2.4	50	.7	6.0	2.2	8.5	.0	39	2.6	Tr.	3.1	100	4.3
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	31	25	.81	1.4	23	.6	5.2	2.0	7.6	.0	36	2.3	Tr.	2.4	61	4.8
Nov. 1	Nov. 11	17	33	1.94	1.0	17	.07	5.2	1.6	5.2	.0	34	2.8	.6	3.4	52	2.5
Nov. 12	Nov. 21	230	181	.79	8.4	21	1.3	4.8	1.2	5.4	.0	30	3.3	1.6	2.7	67	2.7
Nov. 22	Dec. 1	28	131	.47	2.0	16	.3	5.6	1.4	6.3	.0	32	4.3	.6	2.6	54	2.3
Dec. 2	Dec. 12	21	76	3.62	3.5	18	.28	5.4	1.8	4.9	.0	35	1.6	.5	3.0	50	2.3
Dec. 13	Dec. 23	220	664	3.00	16	26	2.2	4.4	1.6	6.8	.0	33	4.3	1.1	3.4	78	2.6
Dec. 24	Dec. 31	350	742	2.12	24	23	1.8	4.6	1.8	6.0	.0	29	4.3	1.6	2.9	69	3.5
Jan. 3	Jan. 13	55	525	9.54	10	16	.35	4.8	1.8	6.2	.0	31	2.8	1.6	3.4	54	4.5
Jan. 20	Jan. 29	110	815	7.41	9.5	21	1.0	5.6	2.0	6.5	.0	40	3.1	Tr.	4.1	75	2.7
Jan. 30	Feb. 9	90	215	2.39	6.5	23	1.0	6.2	2.0	6.2	.0	40	3.5	.2	3.6	77	2.8
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	175	324	1.85	11	23	2.2	5.4	1.0	6.5	.0	25	4.1	2.1	2.9	75	3.1
Feb. 20	Mar. 2	110	209	1.90	8 0	25	2.2	6.0	1.2	6.6	.0	24	5.8	1.8	2.5	84	2.9
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	380	677	1.78	9.0	24	2.4	5.8	.6	7.7	.0	26	4.0	1.9	3.1	86	5.1
Mar. 13	Mar. 24	47	231	4.90	5.3	18	.33	7.8	.8	6.8	.0	28	5.3	2.4	4.1	66	4.6
Mar. 25	Apr. 3	27	45	1.67	1.4	16	.08	6.8	.8	9.5	[b]16	3.0	5.1	.0	5.3	64	2.6
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	225	150	.67	10	28	1.0	6.0	1.1	9.4	.0	40	3.6	3.0	3.1	88	4.9
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	38	44	1.16	2.3	18	.24	5.6	1.6	6.3	.0	29	2.5	1.8	3.4	55	2.7
Apr. 24	May 2	98	110	1.12	6.5	31	1.1	5.6	1.0	8.2	.0	30	2.8	1.8	4.2	86	4.2
Mean		132	264	2.35	7.5	24	1.1	5.6	1.5	6.8	.0	33	3.4	1.1	3.2	71	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	....	....	38.0	[c]2.5	8.9	2.4	10.7	25.3	....	5.4	1.7	5.1	....	....

[a] Analyses September 3 to October 31, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 1, 1906, to April 3, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 4 to May 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Delaware River at Lambertville, N. J.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7.) From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	2	.....	.....	....	22	0.20	14	4.4	5.7	0.0	59	9.9	0.5	2.6	94	2.80
Sept. 18	Sept. 26	13	15	1.15	0.1	12	Tr.	16	5.2	6.9	.0	63	13	.5	3.1	87	2.64
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	85	62	.73	.3	17	.20	15	3.8	5.7	.0	61	17	.5	2.8	94	3.17
Oct. 8	Oct. 17	5	5	1.00	.1	13	Tr.	16	3.2	5.5	.0	52	15	.6	3.2	85	3.16
Oct. 18	Oct. 29	18	50	2.77	.8	16	Tr.	12	1.6	5.2	.0	38	12	.5	2.8	75	4.67
Oct. 30	Nov. 9	6	6.4	1.07	.1	7.2	Tr.	10	1.8	5.7	.0	37	10	.8	2.6	58	4.74
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	5	2	.40	.1	8.0	.06	10	2.4	5.4	.0	36	14	.7	2.6	61	4.39
Nov. 20	Nov. 29	9	9.2	1.02	.2	6.0	Tr.	7.8	1.0	4.9	.0	28	9.2	.8	1.8	46	5.64
Nov. 30	Dec. 9	3	1.2	.40	Tr.	8.0	Tr.	9.4	2.2	.....	.0	35	11	.8	1.9	55	4.62
Dec. 10	Dec. 19	5	1.4	.28	.2	6.4	.12	9.2	3.4	3.6	.0	....	9.2	1.6	2.6	51	4.92
Dec. 20	Dec. 30	6	5.8	.97	.2	7.6	.11	10	3.6	3.6	.0	37	11	2.0	2.9	58	4.80
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	43	78	1.81	2.1	7.6	.14	9.0	3.0	3.9	.0	....	.....	1.4	2.4	50	7.12
Jan. 10	Jan. 19	8	10	1.25	.4	5.8	.11	9.0	3.2	3.0	.0	....	9.6	1.6	2.4	47	5.98
Jan. 20	Jan. 30	8	9.2	1.15	.3	6.6	.09	9.5	3.4	3.8	.0	....	11	1.8	2.4	51	5.39
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	3	3.2	1.06	.2	7.2	.14	10	4.0	3.3	.0	35	11	1.6	2.9	57	4.66
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	6	8.8	1.47	.2	6.0	.04	12	4.2	5.8	.0	....	13	1.9	2.6	65	.....
Feb. 20	Mar. 1	12	16	1.33	.1	.....	.06	12	4.0	6.6	.....	....	11	.5	2.6	76	.....
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	7	7.0	1.00	.3	12	.06	13	4.6	.....	[b]4.3	41	14	2.1	2.9	77	3.75
Mar. 12	Mar. 22	39	96	2.46	1.9	3.0	.05	8.4	2.6	5.7	.0	35	11	1.1	2.6	49	7.19
Apr. 2	Apr. 12	2	5.2	2.60	.3	7.4	.09	8.9	2.9	3.8	.0	....	9.9	1.5	2.6	50	5.20
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	1	2.8	2.80	.2	7.2	.09	9.4	1.9	4.4	.0	32	9.6	1.0	2.2	52	4.89
May 4	May 13	7	15	2.14	.3	8.6	.05	9.7	3.5	5.0	.0	41	9.2	.6	2.2	59	4.94
May 14	May 23	4	12	3.00	.5	11	.07	10	3.0	6.3	.0	41	9.7	1.0	2.6	66	3.34
May 24	June 2	4	12	3.00	.4	7.4	.11	10	3.7	5.7	.0	43	9.7	.7	2.5	62	4.21
June 4	June 13	4	10	2.50	.5	5.6	.10	9.1	3.3	.....	.0	30	10	.7	2.6	52	4.79
June 14	June 23	4	9.0	2.25	.3	3.4	.11	11	3.8	3.8	.0	43	10	.6	3.2	58	3.88
June 25	July 4	9	21	2.33	.4	4.8	.09	12	4.0	5.4	.0	44	12	1.4	3.0	66	4.10
July 5	July 14	90	126	1.40	1.6	.....	.05	14	5.0	.....	.....	....	16	Tr.	3.0	101	3.73
July 15	July 24	65	72	1.11	1.8	14	.13	16	.....	8.8	.0	....	15	1.5	3.0	85	3.52
July 25	Aug. 3	15	41	2.73	1.0	7.2	.04	16	.....	6.9	.0	52	16	1.1	4.0	83	2.57
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	10	45	4.50	.9	11	.04	17	.....	6.6	.0	61	18	1.1	4.0	94	2.29
Aug. 15	Aug. 25	30	63	2.10	1.2	4.8	.04	19	.....	7.9	.0	66	18	1.7	5.4	94	2.32
Aug. 26	Sept. 4	12	31	2.58	.7	11	.06	19	.....	.....	.0	72	19	1.6	4.8	109	2.83
Sept. 5	Sept. 12	12	11	.92	.6	13	.03	17	.....	9.1	.0	66	17	1.5	3.6	101	4.02
Mean		16	26	1.74	.6	9.0	.07	12	3.3	5.4	.0	46	12	1.1	2.9	70	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	....	13.1	[c].2	17.5	4.8	7.9	33.2	....	17.5	1.6	4.2	....	.....

[a] Analyses September 8 to December 9, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 10, 1906, to March 22, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 2 to July 4, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 5 to September 12, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Des Moines River at Keosauqua, Iowa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	275	216	0.78	35	Tr.	50	21	27	0.0	233	51	2.2	4.5	303
Sept. 20	Sept. 29	425	514	1.21	23	.10	47	12	20	.0	188	40	2.5	4.8	256
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	150	132	.88	23	.10	58	.....	14	.0	233	49	2.2	4.8	294
Oct. 10	Oct. 19	65	46	.71	32	.10	68	34	17	.0	.....	.....	1.8	6.1	368
Oct. 20	Oct. 29	20	24	1.20	31	Tr.	70	30	31	.0	.....	92	.6	8.1	396
Oct. 30	Nov. 8	115	132	1.15	23	.05	64	25	20	.0	.....	65	3.1	5.4	336
Nov. 9	Nov. 18	50	63	1.26	22	.05	71	28	19	.0	272	.....	1.3	3.5	361
Nov. 19	Nov. 28	60	55	.92	17	.05	80	28	26	.0	310	90	1.8	5.1	399
Nov. 29	Dec. 8	85	72	.85	26	.15	74	27	22	.0	315	91	2.0	5.3	407
Dec. 9	Dec. 18	30	24	.80	27	.05	83	28	18	.0	.....	96	3.5	5.5	431
Dec. 19	Dec. 28	5	Tr.	(?)	18	.10	100	38	27	.0	412	107	2.6	8.1	492
Dec. 29	Jan. 7	525	460	.88	34	.....	61	22	18	.0	220	83	2.6	4.6	345
Jan. 8	Jan. 17	135	116	.86	20	.9	50	17	13	.0	167	61	4.4	6.5	259
Jan. 18	Jan. 27	235	211	.90	29	1.2	30	10	11	.0	99	52	3.9	4.0	207
Jan. 28	Feb. 8	40	23	.57	18	.45	48	17	16	.0	168	69	1.4	6.5	261
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	220	182	.83	23	.5	65	23	18	.0	231	104	2.2	8.5	346
Feb. 20	Mar. 1	95	94	.99	14	.35	40	13	16	.0	134	61	5.1	4.7	214
Mar. 2	Mar. 12	650	752	1.16	20	1.0	41	14	12	.0	129	60	7.5	5.3	245
Mar. 13	Mar. 22	950	1,063	1.12	23	.9	43	15	22	.0	.....	79	7.3	3.8	258
Mar. 23	Mar. 31	450	566	1.26	18	.6	45	16	18	.0	175	64	4.2	3.3	258
Apr. 2	Apr. 11	300	287	.96	18	.5	55	19	13	.0	218	62	2.6	3.5	288
Apr. 12	Apr. 21	75	99	1.32	15	.10	67	24	17	.0	266	76	4.0	3.9	339
Apr. 22	May 1	35	66	1.89	19	.05	66	30	20	.0	274	89	.5	6.2	386
May 2	May 11	20	.....	.....	11	.15	71	24	20	.0	266	105	Tr.	8.8	383
May 12	May 21	80	106	1.32	5.2	.05	57	27	19	.0	238	94	1.1	9.6	335
May 22	May 31	1,740	1,667	.96	30	1.0	53	19	13	.0	175	82	3.4	3.7	316
June 1	June 10	1,750	2,113	1.21	18	.5	51	16	12	.0	154	74	6.3	2.8	275
June 11	June 20	1,400	2,033	1.45	26	.8	.....	17	10	.0	.....	67	9.5	2.5	303
June 21	June 30	1,200	1,328	1.11	21	.16	60	19	12	.0	218	62	2.8	2.1	299
July 1	July 10	1,300	2,035	1.56	24	.6	55	20	15	.0	214	69	3.3	4.6	296
July 11	July 20	1,670	1,939	1.16	33	.8	.....	.....	13	.0	155	44	6.2	2.5	231
July 21	July 30	1,100	1,268	1.15	17	.16	42	14	8.4	.0	185	35	1.9	1.2	212
July 31	Aug. 9	830	910	1.10	33	.12	62	21	7.1	.0	249	52	5.0	1.8	310
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	2,400	2,591	1.08	31	.6	47	13	19	.0	175	51	7.1	2.8	259
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	550	456	.83	9.2	.04	64	22	23	.0	243	71	2.0	5.0	327
Aug. 31	Sept. 9	500	844	1.69	.....	.18	49	16	20	.0	165	.....	2.2	3.4	251
Mean		542	642	1.09	22	.36	58	21	17	.0	216	71	3.3	4.8	312
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	7.2	[b].2	19.0	6.9	5.6	35.0	.....	23.4	1.1	1.6	.....

[a] Analyses September 10, 1906, to February 19, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 20 to March 1, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 2 to September 9, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Lake Erie at Buffalo, N. Y.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7).	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg.)	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 19	2	....	11	0.13	33	7.1	7.2	4.1	118	12	0.40	8.0	143	572.27
Oct. 19	2	....	11	.08	32	6.8	6.3	4.8	116	11	.00	7.9	138	572.25
Nov. 19	17	....	4.2	.04	31	7.4	5.8	.0	124	12	Tr.	8.2	129	572.32
Dec. 19	24	....	7.6	.04	31	7.4	6.8	3.6	118	13	Tr.	8.6	136	572.45
Jan. 19	190	....	2.9	.07	30	7.4	6.4	.0	117	13	.25	9.2	126	572.96
Mar. 19	13	....	4.5	.10	31	7.5	5.8	2.2	112	14	.25	9.2	132	572.22
Apr. 19	.....	....	8.6	.06	30	8.2	6.9	1.4	108	13	.35	8.4	129	572.62
May 25	.....	....	4.7	.05	31	7.9	6.5	4.0	104	14	.6	8.6	132	572.84
June 19	.....	....	4.6	.03	31	7.9	6.7	5.3	110	13	.45	8.8	131	573.18
July 19	.....	....	3.9	.03	32	7.8	7.1	5.2	110	14	.50	9.2	134	573.33
Aug. 28	.....	....	2.1	.18	31	8.0	5.9	3.4	112	13	.35	8.6	128	573.02
Mean	41	Tr.	5.9	.07	31	7.6	6.5	3.1	114	13	.3	8.7	133	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue	.....	....	4.5	[b].1	23.4	5.7	4.9	44.8	.....	9.8	.2	6.6	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Fe_2O_3.

Mineral analyses of water from Flint River near Albany, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).[b]	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).[c]	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 23	Nov. 1	120	64	0.53	47	.....	6.8	3.6	.....	0.0	29	.....	1.8	3.0	84	4.3
Nov. 2	Nov. 11	45	31	.69	19	0.8	11	4.8	.....	.0	51	.....	.4	3.0	80	1.8
Nov. 12	Nov. 21	17	4	.24	25	.20	11	Tr.	.....	.0	32	.....	.9	2.5	74	2.3
Nov. 22	Dec. 1	20	8	.40	27	.30	12	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.6	2.0	77	3.0
Dec. 2	Dec. 11	25	11	.44	33	.20	12	1.2	.....	.0	37	.....	.7	2.2	90	1.9
Dec. 12	Dec. 21	35	18	.51	34	.5	14	1.6	.....	.0	49	.....	.5	2.5	93	2.1
Dec. 22	Dec. 31	40	17	.42	20	.9	6.0	.8	.....	.0	29	.....	.8	3.0	68	3.8
Jan. 1	Jan. 11	35	20	.07	18	.8	6.2	1.2	.....	.0	22	.....	.5	3.0	62	5.4
Jan. 12	Jan. 22	20	15	.75	22	.10	8.1	.8	.....	.0	34	.....	.8	4.0	63	2.8
Jan. 23	Feb. 2	12	7	.58	16	.8	7.0	.8	.....	.0	24	.....	1.1	5.5	52	3.0
Feb. 2	Feb. 11	120	89	.74	36	.9	5.6	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.4	2.0	66	7.9
Feb. 12	Feb. 21	60	53	.88	22	1.1	6.8	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.7	4.0	70	5.8
Feb. 22	Mar. 3	65	45	.69	14	1.2	8.4	1.2	.....	.0	27	.....	.1	2.5	47	3.8
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	85	64	.75	18	1.4	8.8	1.2	.....	.0	29	.....	.4	3.0	54	5.8
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	40	36	.90	12	.7	6.4	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.3	1.5	39	4.1
Mar. 24	Apr. 2	30	30	1.00	24	1.4	10	1.2	.....	.0	37	.....	.7	3.0	72	2.1
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	60	50	.83	19	.8	10	.8	.....	.0	34	.....	.3	2.5	59	3.8
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	160	156	.98	23	.9	9.5	2.5	.....	.0	34	.....	.3	2.0	60	3.6
Apr. 23	May 2	460	376	.82	27	1.3	9.0	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.2	3.5	66	9.4
May 3	May 12	560	.....	.....	33	2.1	7.0	1.2	.....	.0	24	.....	.1	2.0	60	7.2
Mean		100	58	.67	24	.86	8.8	1.4	[b]7.0	.0	31	[c]6.0	.6	2.8	67	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue[d]		.....	.....	.....	35.8	[e]1.8	13.0	2.1	10.4	22.8	.....	9.0	.9	4.2	....	....

[a] Analyses by J. R. Evans.
[b] Fluctuates between 2 and 10 parts. Average value about 7 parts.
[c] Fluctuates between trace and 8 parts. Average value about 6 parts.
[d] Approximate.
[e] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Grand River at Grand Rapids, Mich.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906–7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	10	39	3.90	0.3	10	Tr.	55	19	10	7.2	220	29	0.7	9.6	256	0.1
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	8	10	1.25	Tr.	19	Tr.	59	20	13	11	244	23	1.0	7.9	277	−.2
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	7	9	1.29	Tr.	22	Tr.	60	21	13	Tr.	269	24	.7	6.7	277	.1
Oct. 31	Nov. 9	4	5.2	1.30	....	16	0.04	62	21	11	4.8	254	29	1.5	7.9	282	.4
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	3	2.8	.93	....	16	.03	65	22	9.0	13	244	31	1.5	8.2	290	.1
Nov. 20	Nov. 29	19	22	1.16	.05	17	.03	63	21	7.4	9.1	234	37	3.0	7.9	286	2.1
Dec. 1	Dec. 11	5	4.0	.80	.16	21	.03	67	20	8.7	.0	246	47	5.0	6.7	303	1.6
Dec. 12	Dec. 29	7	7.0	1.00	.2	15	.03	69	22	6.6	.0	246	49	7.0	8.8	311	1.8
Jan. 2	Jan. 10	375	255	.68	4.9	11	.12	52	16	7.9	.0	198	39	6.0	6.2	240	4.5
Jan. 11	Jan. 23	....	46	.....	2.1	13	.3	45	13	7.4	4.3	148	34	6.0	6.7	210	6.6
Jan. 24	Feb. 6	21	34	1.62	1.3	21	.07	45	14	6.3	4.1	158	32	3.1	4.0	198	10.4
Feb. 7	Feb. 17	28	65	2.32	.5	5.6	.04	41	21	11	14	172	42	.....	6.5	219	6.8
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	9	19	2.11	.4	24	.07	64	19	8.7	17	198	42	4.0	5.8	283	5.4
Feb. 28	Mar. 9	38	76	2.00	1.1	2.8	.05	41	15	8.2	.....	.....	36	1.7	4.8	201	5.0
Mar. 10	Mar. 19	42	65	1.55	1.8	6.6	.09	42	13	7.9	18	145	30	1.5	4.3	195	6.0
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	55	86	1.57	2.6	6.0	.12	42	12	6.0	8.4	146	26	2.0	4.1	191	7.1
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	34	36	1.06	1.1	11	.08	47	14	9.1	11	162	30	4.0	7.8	219	6.3
Apr. 9	Apr. 19	7	18	2.57	.5	15	.04	58	18	13	15	202	35	3.5	7.2	269	2.8
Apr. 20	May 1	36	35	.97	1.2	15	.10	60	18	11	16	207	35	2.5	7.8	272	2.0
May 2	May 12	36	40	1.11	1.4	16	.12	50	15	11	12	179	30	2.0	6.0	235	5.7
May 13	May 24	9	13	1.44	.4	26	.08	60	19	9.7	7.2	232	35	4.0	9.0	292	1.6
May 25	June 4	26	23	.88	.5	9.6	.10	61	19	13	12	231	33	3.0	9.6	280	1.7
June 5	June 14	5	15	3.00	.6	8.2	.05	61	19	15	7.2	235	35	2.0	7.8	279	1.0
June 15	June 24	20	45	2.25	.8	8.0	.14	60	20	14	7.2	238	30	1.0	7.4	269	.4
June 25	July 4	9	20	2.22	.4	13	.06	60	20	10	.0	257	28	1.7	10	273	.5
July 5	July 15	15	30	2.00	1.0	15	.05	61	22	13	.....	.....	31	Tr.	9.8	270	.2
July 16	July 25	200	172	.86	4.4	21	.09	59	20	12	14	204	30	1.6	9.4	265	1.2
July 26	Aug. 6	40	56	1.40	1.6	10	.06	59	20	9.8	7.2	229	32	.2	9.4	259	.6
Aug. 7	Aug. 16	20	41	2.05	.8	15	.05	60	22	10	11	226	32	.8	8.6	266	.3
Aug. 17	Aug. 26	15	31	2.07	1.1	12	.05	58	23	8.8	12	217	31	1.4	9.4	263	.3
Aug. 27	Sept. 5	20	36	1.80	1.0	24	.05	59	22	15	.0	249	35	1.2	12	286	.3
Sept. 6	Sept. 15	15	22	1.47	1.2	14	.04	58	22	9.1	7.2	228	30	1.5	9.0	263	.2
Sept. 16	Sept. 25	70	84	1.20	2.6	2.4	.06	53	18	9.3	13	182	30	Tr.	8.2	232	.3
Sept. 26	Oct. 5	12	15	1.25	.5	20	.04	59	21	15	9.6	237	29	2.0	8.6	277	.6
Mean		37	43	1.61	1.1	14	.07	56	19	10	8.5	214	33	2.3	7.7	258	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	....	5.5	[b]5.0	21.9	7.4	3.9	44.5	.....	12.9	.9	3.0	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 1, 1906, to November 29, 1906, by R. B. Dole; January 2 to March 29, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 30 to July 4, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 5 to October 5, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Hudson River at Hudson, N. Y.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 17	Sept. 27	10	11	1.10	0.6	19	0.2	24	4.4	7.9	0.0	87	16	Tr.	3.8	131
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	9	9	1.00	.4	15	.2	24	4.2	7.9	.0	80	17	0.5	5.3	129
Oct. 8	Oct. 17	6	7	1.17	.2	9.0	.1	26	3.8	10	.0	80	20	.9	5.6	131
Oct. 18	Oct. 28	7	11	1.57	.3	13	.05	26	3.8	11	.0	82	20	.7	5.3	135
Oct. 29	Nov. 7	8	11	1.37	.....	13	.18	25	4.8	9.9	.0	79	21	.9	4.1	125
Nov. 8	Nov. 17	8	10	1.25	.....	15	.16	22	4.4	10	.0	77	21	.9	4.1	123
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	18	13	.72	.8	13	.2	20	4.2	7.9	.0	71	15	1.0	3.0	112
Nov. 28	Dec. 8	9	10	1.11	.3	8.6	.15	18	3.8	6.3	.0	63	12	.5	2.6	96
Dec. 9	Dec. 18	8	6.0	.75	.6	8.0	.08	20	4.2	7.3	.0	72	16	1.6	4.3	99
Dec. 19	Dec. 28	8	6.8	.85	.5	11	.06	24	5.0	7.6	.0	83	18	1.5	4.4	114
Dec. 29	Jan. 8	39	40	1.02	1.4	7.4	.1	18	4.0	6.3	.0	60	14	1.8	2.9	88
Jan. 9	Jan. 18	31	30	.97	1.1	12	.16	15	3.4	4.6	.0	52	12	1.2	3.4	82
Jan. 19	Jan. 27	13	21	1.62	.6	5.6	.09	18	4.0	5.0	.0	57	15	1.1	3.6	86
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	6	6.4	1.07	.4	9.6	.12	21	4.6	5.0	.0	67	16	1.6	4.1	103
Feb. 10	Feb. 20	18	32	1.78	.4	4.2	.1	19	4.8	6.6	.0	70	17	.0	4.3	99
Feb. 21	Mar. 2	9	11	1.22	.8	9.6	.13	24	5.0	5.7	.0	77	19	2.0	5.0	118
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	6	2.6	.43	.4	27	.13	25	4.8	5.8	.0	76	21	2.1	5.0	129
Mar. 13	Mar. 22	20	21	1.05	1.1	13	.13	20	4.0	4.9	.0	63	16	2.1	4.2	98
Mar. 23	Apr. 1	34	54	1.59	2.1	5.6	.13	16	2.2	5.0	[b] 7.9	43	9.7	.3	1.2	63
Apr. 2	Apr. 12	15	16	1.07	.5	15	.09	16	1.2	9.8	.0	61	13	1.3	2.9	94
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	13	19	1.46	.7	9.2	.12	16	1.4	6.9	.0	56	10	1.0	3.0	83
Apr. 23	May 2	30	33	1.10	1.4	13	.16	16	1.4	9.4	.0	56	12	.9	2.4	87
May 3	May 12	12	15	1.25	.6	12	.13	.....	1.0	5.0	.0	48	12	.8	2.4	77
May 13	May 22	7	9.0	1.29	.5	9.0	.15	16	1.2	7.6	.0	62	11	.8	2.4	84
May 23	June 1	6	11	1.83	.5	10	.15	18	1.4	6.3	.0	.....	13	.6	3.4	96
June 2	June 11	7	10	1.43	.5	5.4	.11	18	1.8	.....	.0	63	.....	.5	3.4	92
June 12	June 21	6	9.6	1.60	.4	4.8	.11	20	2.0	6.9	.0	.....	14	.5	3.4	93
June 22	July 1	29	34	1.17	1.0	6.6	.09	22	4.0	9.5	[b] 12	56	14	Tr.	6.2	103
July 2	July 11	20	30	1.50	.8	9.2	.12	.....	5.4	9.8	[b] 12	60	19	.0	5.8	117
July 12	July 21	4	11	2.75	.8	16	.40	22	4.6	11	.0	83	17	Tr.	3.8	122
July 22	July 31	9	13	1.44	.8	11	.11	26	4.6	12	.0	92	20	Tr.	3.4	127
Aug. 1	Aug. 10	7	2.2	.31	.7	10	.21	26	5.0	9.4	.0	88	20	Tr.	5.0	127
Aug. 11	Aug. 21	8	23	2.88	.8	.....	.14	26	5.4	9.3	[b] 4.8	84	19	.0	5.4	125
Aug. 22	Sept. 1	7	6.6	.94	.7	8.0	.23	26	5.4	9.8	.0	95	21	.0	5.4	131
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	9	6.8	.76	.9	8.8	.42	26	5.8	8.8	.0	87	22	Tr.	5.8	133
Sept. 12	Sept. 22	11	12	1.09	.7	13	.10	26	5.4	9.4	.0	85	23	Tr.	4.2	132
Mean		13	16	1.26	.7	11	.15	21	3.8	7.9	.0	73	16	.8	4.0	108
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	10.9	[c] .2	20.9	3.8	7.8	35.7	.....	15.9	.8	4.0	....

[a] Analyses September 17 to December 8, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 9, 1906, to April 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 2 to July 1, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 2 to September 22, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Lake Huron at Port Huron, Mich.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date 906–7).	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
l	1	....	13	0.02	24	6.4	3.5	3.4	97	4.8	0.30	2.5	108	581.12
	2	....	8.7	.10	24	6.3	3.7	3.6	96	6.2	.25	2.5	105	580.87
l	Tr.	....	8.0	.05	24	6.7	3.0	.0	100	5.6	.4	2.6	101	580.68
	Tr.	....	12	.05	23	6.7	3.5	.0	103	6.6	.3	3.1	106	580.65
	.....	....	12	.03	23	7.1	5.8	.0	99	6.7	.4	2.5	108	580.65
	.....	....	14	.03	22	7.2	4.7	1.2	101	6.7	.3	2.5	109	580.68
	.....	....	14	.04	24	7.7	5.1	Tr.	106	6.0	.45	2.6	110	580.90
	.....	....	14	.05	25	7.6	5.9	2.4	102	7.3	.4	2.8	116	581.08
l	.....	....	8.5	.04	24	7.5	4.7	5.3	96	6.4	.45	2.8	105	581.39
l	Tr.	Tr.	12	.04	24	7.0	4.4	1.8	100	6.2	.4	2.6	108	.....
t. of anhydrous residue	.....	....	11.1	[c].0	22.3	6.5	4.1	47.4	.....	5.8	.4	2.4	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Gaging station at Harbor Beach, Mich., 60 miles above.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

8464—IRR 236—09——5

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Mineral analyses of water from Iowa River at Iowa City, Iowa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 6	Sept. 15	90	64	0.71	28	.....	57	20	17	[b]7.7	245	31	0.2	3.8	253
Sept. 16	Sept. 25	105	74	.70	28	0.30	47	18	19	.0	222	.....	1.8	5.0	264
Sept. 26	Oct. 6	125	86	.69	24	.10	51	21	13	.0	223	36	1.7	6.7	265
Oct. 7	Oct. 16	75	62	.83	22	.10	56	23	14	.0	273	32	1.1	4.0	273
Oct. 17	Oct. 26	50	51	1.02	36	Tr.	64	26	13	.0	283	44	.5	3.9	312
Oct. 27	Nov. 5	25	22	.88	21	Tr.	63	22	12	.0	262	35	1.3	5.4	289
Nov. 6	Nov. 15	20	13	.65	14	Tr.	60	20	16	.0	268	30	1.5	4.4	291
Nov. 16	Nov. 25	15	14	.93	10	.10	59	21	17	.0	275	36	Tr.	3.7	276
Nov. 26	Dec. 5	35	29	.83	15	.15	53	20	16	.0	253	36	4.4	4.5	270
Dec. 6	Dec. 16	20	13	.65	26	.10	61	18	16	.0	282	42	4.4	4.0	312
Dec. 17	Jan. 4	70	41	.59	27	.05	61	24	.....	.0	281	31	3.5	4.0	306
Jan. 5	Jan. 15	135	102	.76	14	.6	23	10	11	.0	90	31	5.2	2.1	139
Jan. 16	Jan. 28	115	87	.76	18	.7	21	7.5	.....	.0	83	30	1.7	2.7	134
Jan. 29	Feb. 7	10	7.2	.72	.12	.15	39	15	14	.0	160	39	2.3	3.4	196
Feb. 8	Feb. 17	15	26	1.73	8.8	.07	44	13	12	.0	165	44	2.2	6.7	211
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	75	69	.92	6.2	.15	.....	9.2	12	.0	79	34	6.9	1.4	129
Feb. 28	Mar. 9	240	213	.89	9.2	.9	.....	11	14	.0	118	51	6.4	1.8	187
Mar. 10	Mar. 19	170	109	.64	18	.05	35	11	18	.0	141	36	4.0	2.0	192
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	90	62	.69	.....	.16	46	15	12	.0	195	38	1.3	3.3	231
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	285	140	.49	15	.45	44	16	9.5	.0	208	36	4.1	.....	221
Apr. 9	Apr. 18	50	30	.60	14	.10	59	21	12	.0	228	49	1.0	3.2	285
Apr. 19	Apr. 28	30	37	1.24	13	.03	61	23	15	.0	270	49	Tr.	4.2	319
Apr. 30	May 8	50	55	1.10	13	.40	46	18	15	.0	.....	47	.6	5.4	284
May 9	May 18	50	.....	.....	9.8	.15	57	24	12	.0	270	38	Tr.	3.3	284
May 19	May 28	540	377	.70	36	1.4	48	14	11	.0	202	36	5.4	2.4	278
May 29	June 7	190	124	.65	17	.10	47	16	9.1	.0	181	37	2.9	3.2	232
June 8	June 16	650	476	.73	23	.40	38	13	11	.0	161	30	3.5	1.9	217
June 17	June 26	255	187	.68	25	.30	47	17	26	.0	.....	32	3.4	4.3	270
June 27	July 7	350	214	.61	26	.30	55	20	11	.0	252	33	4.4	2.6	268
July 8	July 17	1,200	757	.63	25	.35	30	8.2	.....	.0	114	40	3.0	.....	172
July 18	July 27	375	257	.67	22	.7	35	9.6	9.9	.0	153	22	7.2	.....	192
July 28	Aug. 7	162	117	.72	22	.06	55	16	15	.0	238	29	3.1	1.6	266
Aug. 8	Aug. 17	175	118	.67	20	.10	48	17	11	.0	218	32	3.9	2.4	249
Aug. 18	Aug. 27	75	50	.67	24	.19	59	18	8.9	.0	245	34	3.0	2.8	288
Aug. 28	Sept. 6	80	71	.89	16	.11	52	19	.....	.0	222	33	3.0	4.2	243
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	50	63	1.26	17	.02	57	20	18	.0	267	38	.6	3.8	285
Mean		168	120	.80	19	.25	49	17	14	.0	210	36	2.8	3.6	247
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	7.8	[c].1	20.0	6.9	5.7	42.2	.....	14.7	1.1	1.5	....

[a] Analyses September 6, 1906, to February 17, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 18 to 27, 1907, by Henry S. Spaulding; February 28 to September 16, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from James River at Richmond, Va.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	38	29	0.76	2.5	25	0.6	17	4.0	6.8	0.0	72	4.3	Tr.	2.4	100	0.7
Sept. 20	Sept. 29	43	15	.35	2.8	30	1.0	17	4.2	6.3	.0	76	5.1	0.4	2.2	119	.6
Sept. 30	Oct. 8	400	85	.21	21	54	1.3	17	3.2	4.7	.0	69	12	.4	Tr.	146	2.8
Oct. 10	Oct. 19	70	32	.46	3.5	15	.5	15	2.6	5.8	.0	58	5.1	.9	1.9	83	1.1
Oct. 20	Oct. 29	270	56	.21	7.1	21	.8	12	2.0	6.7	.0	....	3.9	.9	1.4	93	7.2
Oct. 30	Nov. 8	14	18	1.29	1.1	31	.3	15	3.6	6.9	.0	68	5.6	.7	2.9	98	1.0
Nov. 9	Nov. 18	12	12	1.00	0.5	25	.2	16	4.0	6.6	.0	71	10	.5	2.2	97	.6
Nov. 19	Nov. 28	260	227	.87	8.6	14	.9	11	1.4	4.6	.0	46	5.8	.4	1.4	71	2.1
Nov. 29	Dec. 8	14	11	.79	0.8	18	.3	13	2.4	3.9	.0	58	4.6	.2	.2	76	.7
Dec. 9	Dec. 18	11	7.4	.67	0.9	17	.25	14	4.2	3.0	.0	60	5.1	.1	2.2	79	.6
Dec. 19	Dec. 29	47	53	1.12	3.0	11	.4	13	3.0	1.8	.0	54	5.9	.2	2.2	71	1.3
Dec. 30	Jan. 8	55	59	1.07	5.8	16	.8	11	2.8	....	.0	46	4.9	.7	1.9	71	1.5
Jan. 9	Jan. 19	9	20	2.23	1.3	15	.23	13	3.2	....	.0	56	4.6	.4	1.9	73	1.1
Jan. 20	Jan. 29	21	44	2.10	2.3	12	.26	12	2.8	....	.0	50	4.3	.5	1.8	63	1.2
Jan. 30	Feb. 8	6	10	1.67	0.8	14	.35	13	3.2	....	.0	53	5.1	Tr.	2.4	70	1.0
Feb. 9	Feb. 18	24	18	.75	1.2	11	.6	13	3.4	3.6	.0	55	5.1	Tr.	3.0	69	1.0
Feb. 19	Mar. 1	17	15	.88	0.6	13	.18	13	2.0	4.7	.0	51	8.8	.9	1.7	70	1.0
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	55	47	.85	1.8	17	.67	12	2.3	6.1	.0	49	7.7	.7	1.0	76	1.4
Mar. 12	Mar. 22	55	50	.91	1.8	13	.23	12	2.5	6.1	.0	51	5.8	.6	1.0	69	1.8
Mar. 23	Apr. 2	38	25	.66	1.9	16	.19	14	2.5	6.8	.0	59	12	.3	1.4	83	.9
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	190	194	1.02	8.6	24	.7	13	1.8	11	.0	60	8.4	.0	2.6	97	3.5
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	42	64	1.52	2.1	26	.16	13	1.6	10	.0	59	5.6	.0	1.8	91	1.6
Apr. 23	May 3	80	70	.87	2.7	....	.7	16	3.2	14	[b] 17	55	7.4	Tr.	3.4	174	1.3
May 4	May 13	220	190	.86	10	22	1.8	11	1.4	6.6	.0	52	6.6	.0	2.2	88	1.8
May 14	May 23	70	64	.91	2.6	24	.35	12	1.8	9.4	[b] 2.4	54	6.9	Tr.	1.8	91	1.2
May 24	June 2	110	125	1.14	5.6	20	.3	13	1.9	8.8	.0	62	7.2	Tr.	2.2	88	1.5
June 3	June 12	230	256	1.13	14	6.4	.5	9.6	0.6	6.9	[b] 2.4	33	7.7	.0	2.4	58	3.8
June 13	June 22	235	240	1.02	11	11	.3	12	0.4	7.2	[b] 11	27	6.1	.0	2.2	69	3.6
June 23	July 2	110	126	1.14	5.4	19	.24	15	0.6	9.8	[b] 12	46	6.2	Tr.	2.4	93	1.2
July 3	July 12	48	40	.83	1.2	11	.04	16	4.0	8.0	.0	62	7.6	.3	3.8	82	.6
July 13	July 22	20	29	1.45	0.6	17	.06	18	4.6	5.7	.0	71	8.4	.2	3.6	94	.6
July 23	Aug. 1	100	81	.81	1.4	14	.28	18	4.8	6.1	.0	67	11	Tr.	4.6	97	.4
Aug. 2	Aug. 11	45	36	.80	1.0	16	.05	18	4.8	7.2	.0	71	9.9	.4	3.6	98	.2
Aug. 12	Aug. 21	120	75	.62	1.6	18	1.5	17	5.2	6.9	.0	....	10	.7	3.6	100	.5
Aug. 22	Sept. 1	28	33	1.18	1.2	12	.19	19	5.5	5.0	[b] 3.6	67	10	.3	3.6	97	.3
Sept. 2	Sept. 9	150	90	.60	1.5	16	.79	19	5.1	6.0	.0	....	11	Tr.	3.2	100	.2
Mean		90	71	.96	3.9	18	.5	14	3.0	6.7	.0	60	7.1	.3	2.3	89	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	....	....	22.0	[c] .9	17.1	3.7	8.2	36.2	....	8.7	.4	2.8	....	....

[a] Analyses September 10 to November 28, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 29, 1906, to April 2, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 3 to July 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 12 to September 9, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Kalamazoo River near Kalamazoo, Mich.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 19	Sept. 28	3	.....	.....	0.3	29	0.3	59	20	9.0	6.8	250	16	1.5	3.8	272
Sept. 29	Oct. 8	4	.....	.....	.3	19	.3	58	20	8.7	9.8	236	22	1.5	3.8	265
Oct. 9	Oct. 18	5	12	2.40	Tr.	20	Tr.	62	19	8.8	8.4	257	15	2.1	4.3	261
Oct. 19	Oct. 28	3	7.0	2.33	Tr.	20	Tr.	62	19	8.5	5.8	264	14	1.6	3.6	262
Oct. 29	Nov. 7	5	7.6	1.52	.1	16	Tr.	64	18	6.1	17	238	28	2.6	3.8	278
Nov. 8	Nov. 17	9	7.2	.80	Tr.	17	Tr.	63	18	6.5	.0	271	25	2.4	3.8	284
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	8	7.4	.92	.1	19	Tr.	66	19	8.3	.0	250	27	2.8	3.6	262
Nov. 27	Dec. 7	4	4.8	1.20	Tr.	21	Tr.	64	19	7.2	Tr.	253	21	2.8	3.4	267
Dec. 8	Dec. 18	7	3.2	.46	.1	15	.06	60	18	5.4	5.3	222	31	0.8	3.0	255
Dec. 19	Dec. 28	5	3.2	.64	.1	20	.07	68	21	5.8	17	234	31	3.2	3.6	299
Dec. 29	Jan. 1	6	5.6	.93	.3	17	.07	63	19	4.9	.0	252	24	3.2	3.4	262
Jan. 8	Jan. 17	11	13	1.18	.8	22	06	56	17	3.3	.0	213	31	3.2	3.4	241
Jan. 18	Jan. 28	11	11	1.00	.6	11	.03	52	16	5.5	.0	198	28	3.2	3.0	223
Jan. 29	Feb. 8	9	54	6.00	.4	11	.05	49	19	7.1	19	202	32	1.9	3.5	228
Feb. 9	Feb. 18	19	89	4.68	.3	2.8	.06	31	19	8.4	14	160	25	.2	2.9	174
Feb. 19	Feb. 28	13	85	6.54	.2	3.4	.06	22	17	7.4	19	121	...	.0	3.1	140
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	4	7.0	1.75	.4	23	.06	57	17	6.9	14	220	23	3.6	3.0	252
Mar. 21	Mar. 27	9	15	1.67	.8	15	.05	52	14	6.3	4.8	193	22	2.0	2.4	223
Mar. 31	Apr. 9	9	16	1.78	.3	19	.06	52	14	11	14	173	26	2.0	3.6	235
Apr. 10	Apr. 21	10	25	2.50	.15	26	.06	.	16	.....	17	160	24	3.5	4.6	232
Apr. 22	May 1	8	12	1.50	.3	24	.05	59	17	10	17	218	20	2.5	3.6	265
May 2	May 11	13	19	1.46	1.6	8.8	.05	49	15	6.9	12	163	30	2.5	3.4	214
May 12	May 21	2	3.5	1.75	.1	19	.07	60	18	12	12	234	22	1.8	3.4	263
May 22	June 1	4	6.5	1.62	.2	14	.06	58	18	10	12	235	20	1.5	2.8	252
June 2	June 11	6	9.5	1.58	.2	12	.03	58	18	11	11	228	20	2.5	3.0	249
June 12	June 22	3	6.5	2.17	.3	15	.05	58	19	13	Tr.	249	19	1.6	3.4	254
June 23	July 3	3	32	10.65	.6	16	.06	56	20	9.5	4.8	227	17	Tr.	4.2	241
July 4	July 13	10	95	9.50	Tr.	22	Tr.	37	20	.....	.0	174	22	Tr.	2.6	189
July 14	July 23	7	36	5.14	Tr.	11	Tr.	37	19	.....	9.6	135	20	Tr.	2.4	186
July 24	Aug. 2	4	11	2.75	Tr.	23	Tr.	58	20	.....	12	202	20	.9	2.2	256
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	3	7.0	2.33	Tr.	14	Tr.	55	19	10	Tr.	228	20	1.5	4.5	233
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	3	8.4	2.80	Tr.	19	Tr.	38	21	.....	.0	167	19	2.0	3.6	196
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	2	5.0	2.50	Tr.	23	Tr.	58	21	12	.0	251	21	1.5	3.4	254
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	3	5.4	1.80	Tr.	22	Tr.	58	21	.....	.0	246	20	1.4	3.6	257
Sept. 12	Sept. 21	6	7.6	1.27	Tr.	18	Tr.	57	20	11	9.6	226	19	1.3	3.8	245
Mean		7	19	2.64	.2	17	.05	55	18	8.2	7.8	216	23	1.9	3.4	242
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	7.1	[b]0	22.9	7.5	3.4	47.3	.....	9.6	0.8	1.4	.....

[a] Analyses September 19 to December 7, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 8, 1906, to March 27, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 31 to July 3, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 13 to September 21, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Kentucky River at Frankfort, Ky.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Aug. 28	Sept. 7	70	63	0.90	2.7	15	0.9	....	2.2	11	0.0	77	5.4	Tr.	1.4	102	6.4
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	180	108	.60	4.0	28	1.2	18	4.2	8.9	.0	80	6.4	1.5	1.7	120	6.8
Sept. 18	Sept. 27	165	84	.51	5.2	23	1.4	21	2.6	7.2	.0	76	7.6	2.4	1.9	117	6.4
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	160	101	.63	4.9	21	.8	30	4.6	9.1	.0	111	8.2	2.6	1.7	147	7.3
Oct. 8	Oct. 18	105	73	.69	2.7	19	.6	27	4.8	6.5	.0	103	8.7	2.8	2.4	133	7.0
Oct. 19	Oct. 28	50	34	.68	2.0	5.2	.4	21	4.2	5.5	.0	83	7.6	1.7	2.2	105	6.0
Oct. 29	Nov. 8	43	25	.58	....	19	.3	22	4.6	6.8	.0	89	8.9	2.0	2.4	111	5.8
Nov. 9	Nov. 19	32	19	.59	.	14	.12	25	4.4	7.2	.0	90	7.9	2.1	2.2	112	5.8
Nov. 20	Nov. 30	..	406	.....	8.8	12	.7	26	4.0	6.5	.0	89	10	5.0	3.0	117	8.9
Dec. 1	Dec. 12	105	41	.39	1.9	15	.6	26	5.4	4.3	.0	80	....	6.2	...	117	6.2
Dec. 13	Dec. 23	450	430	.96	9.3	15	.65	27	4.8	3.6	.0	99	6.9	7.4	1.8	125	10.6
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	270	206	.76	5.8	18	1.4	25	4.6	3.0	.0	79	7.9	6.4	1.7	118	10.2
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	210	140	.67	3.2	14	.4	28	4.8	3.6	.0	94	9.4	7.4	1.4	121	9.5
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	700	660	.94	16	15	.7	26	5.2	5.2	.0	96	7.4	7.0	1.8	125	19.1
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	150	97	.65	4.2	14	.8	22	4.8	5.0	.0	...	8.1	5.0	1.2	95	9.6
Feb. 2	Feb. 11	65	124	1.91	3.5	13	.16	13	4.0	3.8	5.8	45	8.1	.4	1.4	73	8.4
Feb. 12	Feb. 21	36	58	1.61	1.9	9.8	.09	18	3.8	5.5	14	40	8.9	.9	2.4	83	8.0
Feb. 22	Mar. 3	200	273	1.36	10	4.0	.15	18	3.4	4.3	12	46	8.9	1.8	2.0	78	10.1
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	210	172	.82	5.8	12	.35	19	3.6	6.2	.0	74	8.7	4.1	1.6	96	10.4
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	650	632	.97	23	21	.4	18	3.4	6.5	.0	70	8.2	4.0	1.3	100	13.0
Mar. 24	Apr. 2	43	36	.84	1.4	11	.12	21	4.0	5.7	2.9	73	8.2	2.8	2.4	92	6.7
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	90	65	.72	2.1	15	.18	18	3.2	6.9	.0	63	8.4	2.2	2.5	88	8.0
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	26	24	.92	1.4	22	.21	13	1.3	8.7	2.4	49	6.2	1.5	2.6	86	7.3
Apr. 24	May 3	24	28	1.17	0.5	12	.06	14	1.4	6.4	.0	59	7.7	.3	2.2	86	6.8
May 4	May 13	90	137	1.52	3.0	18	.10	18	3.0	7.9	.0	89	4.0	.5	1.4	100	9.0
May 14	May 23	49	52	1.06	1.9	34	.6	20	2.4	9.1	.0	82	7.6	2.0	1.9	131	7.2
May 25	June 3	26	28	1.08	.8	15	.10	21	3.8	7.9	2.9	77	7.7	1.5	2.4	102	6.7
June 4	June 13	375	357	.95	13	22	1.3	13	1.7	9.1	.0	51	7.2	1.8	2.4	106	9.4
June 14	June 24	215	237	1.10	5.6	16	.61	14	1.3	9.9	.0	54	11	1.5	1.4	93	8.3
June 26	July 5	68	69	1.02	2.3	12	.11	16	3.8	6.1	8.4	49	7.1	Tr.	1.8	81	6.3
July 7	July 16	40	75	1.88	1.8	16	.05	17	4.8	9.1	12	46	12	Tr.	2.2	85	6.4
July 17	July 26	190	103	.54	3.8	28	.52	17	....	9.9	8.4	58	12	.0	2.4	108	6.2
July 27	Aug. 5	33	53	1.60	1.4	7.8	.26	21	....	6.6	17	41	9.9	.0	2.6	87	5.9
Aug. 6	Aug. 15	45	30	.67	2.1	16	.49	21	....	7.5	.0	72	9.1	1.3	.6	96	5.7
Aug. 16	Aug. 25	20	16	.80	1.0	16	.16	22	....	8.3	.0	78	9.4	1.2	3.6	99	6.1
Aug. 26	Sept. 4	70	39	.56	2.4	22	.70	22	....	7.2	.0	78	8.7	1.3	3.0	112	6.4
Mean		150	142	.93	4.7	16	.49	21	3.7	6.8	2.4	73	8.3	2.5	2.0	104	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	....	....	16.1	[b].7	21.1	3.7	6.9	38.6	....	8.4	2.5	2.0	....	....

[a] Analyses August 28, 1906, to January 22, 1907, by R. B. Dole; January 23 to April 2, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 3 to July 5, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 7 to September 4, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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SURFACE WATERS EAST OF THE HUNDREDTH MER

Mineral analyses of water from Kalamazoo River near Kalamaz

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906–7).		Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	[illegible]	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).
——	To—											
19	Sept. 28	3	.....	.....	0.3	29	0.3	59	20	9.0	6.8	25
29	Oct. 8	4	.....	.....	.3	19	.3	58	20	8.7	9.8	23
9	Oct. 18	5	12	2.40	Tr.	20	Tr.	62	19	8.8	8.4	23
19	Oct. 28	3	7.0	2.33	Tr.	20	Tr.	62	19	8.5	5.8	26
29	Nov. 7	5	7.6	1.52	.1	16	Tr.	64	18	6.1	17	23
8	Nov. 17	9	7.2	.80	Tr.	17	Tr.	63	19	6.5	.0	27
18	Nov. 27	8	7.4	.92	.1	19	Tr.	66	19	8.3	.0	2
27	Dec. 7	4	4.8	1.20	Tr.	21	Tr.	64	18	7.2	Tr.	2
8	Dec. 18	7	3.2	.46	.1	15	.06	60	21	5.4	5.3	2
19	Dec. 28	5	3.2	.64	.1	20	.07	68	19	5.8	17	2
29	Jan. 1	6	5.6	.93	.3	17	.07	63	17	4.9	.0	2
8	Jan. 17	11	13	1.18	.8	22	.06	56	16	3.3	.0	2
18	Jan. 28	11	11	1.00	.6	11	.03	52	19	5.5	.0	1
29	Feb. 8	9	54	6.00	.4	11	.05	49	19	7.1	19	2
9	Feb. 18	19	89	4.68	.3	2.8	.06	31	17	8.4	14	1
19	Feb. 28	13	85	6.54	.2	3.4	.06	22	17	7.4	19	1
11	Mar. 20	4	7.0	1.75	.4	23	.06	57	14	6.9	14	2
21	Mar. 27	9	15	1.67	.8	15	.05	52	14	6.3	4.8	1
31	Apr. 9	9	16	1.78	.3	19	.06	52	16	11	14	1
10	Apr. 21	10	25	2.50	.15	26	.06	59	17	.....	17	1
22	May 1	8	12	1.50	.3	24	.05	49	15	10	17	2
.2	May 11	13	19	1.46	1.6	8.8	.05	60	18	6.9	12	1
12	May 21	2	3.5	1.75	.1	19	.07	58	18	12	12	1
22	June 1	4	6.5	1.62	.2	14	.06	58	18	10	12	1
2	June 11	6	9.5	1.58	.2	12	.03	58	19	11	11	1
12	June 22	3	6.5	2.17	.3	15	.05	56	20	13	Tr.	1
23	July 3	3	32	10.65	.6	16	.06	37	20	9.5	4.8	1
4	July 13	10	95	9.50	Tr.	22	Tr.	37	19	.....	.0	1
14	July 23	7	36	5.14	Tr.	11	Tr.	28	20	.....	9.6	1
24	Aug. 2	4	11	2.75	Tr.	23	Tr.	55	19	12	Tr.	1
3	Aug. 12	3	7.0	2.33	Tr.	14	Tr.	38	21	10	.0	1
13	Aug. 22	3	8.4	2.80	Tr.	19	Tr.	58	21	12	.0	1
23	Sept. 1	2	5.0	2.50	Tr.	23	Tr.	58	21	.....	.0	1
t. 2	Sept. 11	3	5.4	1.80	Tr.	22	Tr.	57	20	11	9.6	1
t. 12	Sept. 21	6	7.6	1.27	Tr.	18	Tr.	55	18	8.2	7.8	1
lean		7	19	2.64	.2	17	.05	22.9	7.5	3.4	47.3	1
er ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	7.1	b.0					

Analyses September 19 to December 7, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 8, 1906, le and M. G. Roberts; March 31 to July 3, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. R 21, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Lehigh River at South Bethlehem, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 11	Sept. 20	8	7.4	0.92	1.5	11	0.10	22	8.0	6.8	0.0	58	43	2.0	7.0	128	4.2
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	7	6	.86	.6	13	.5	23	8.8	9.1	.0	65	44	1.9	8.2	145	4.2
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	12	11	.92	.5	11	.10	17	7.0	7.9	.0	48	42	3.0	5.5	119	4.4
Oct. 11	Oct. 21	8	7.8	.98	.9	11	.10	17	6.6	7.7	.0	49	38	3.2	6.0	113	4.5
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	13	20	1.54	1.7	9.0	.20	12	4.8	6.9	.0	30	26	1.9	3.8	79	5.1
Nov. 1	Nov. 11	12	12	1.00	1.4	5.4	.06	12	4.6	5.8	.0	28	29	2.8	4.7	78	4.9
Nov. 12	Nov. 21	16	18	1.12	1.6	6.4	.08	12	4.8	6.1	.0	25	32	2.8	5.3	84	4.9
Nov. 23	Dec. 3	10	10	1.00	.8	10	.07	12	4.8	8.5	.0	34	29	3.0	6.2	88	4.9
Dec. 4	Dec. 13	13	11	.85	1.4	5.6	.06	13	5.6	5.2	.0	28	31	3.0	4.6	78	....
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	11	10	.91	1.0	6.4	.07	11	4.8	4.1	.0	28	26	3.8	5.0	72	4.9
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	50	107	2.14	3.2	7.0	.12	10	....	5.0	.0	28	25	4.0	5.4	68	....
Jan. 3	Jan. 13	17	34	2.00	1.9	8.0	.10	8.8	3.4	3.9	.0	22	20	4.0	3.8	60	5.4
Jan. 14	Jan. 25	13	22	1.69	1.8	9.6	.10	10	3.8	4.9	.0	27	21	4.0	3.7	68	5.2
Jan. 26	Feb. 4	11	11	1.00	1.1	7.2	.11	11	4.8	....	.0	29	27	3.0	4.8	72	....
Feb. 6	Feb. 15	9	4.6	.51	1.0	9.2	.09	13	5.4	5.0	.0	40	28	3.0	4.6	84	....
Feb. 16	Feb. 25	6	10	1.66	.8	6.2	.06	15	5.0	5.0	.0	44	25	2.1	3.6	83	....
Feb. 26	Mar. 7	11	9.0	.82	1.0	8.4	.04	16	5.4	8.5	.0	49	30	6.9	4.2	100	....
Mar. 8	Mar. 17	55	103	1.88	2.8	7.2	.10	13	....	4.5	.0	37	23	2.9	3.4	82	....
Mar. 18	Mar. 27	19	49	2.58	1.2	4.0	.09	7.6	1.6	5.8	.0	17	15	1.9	2.2	48	6.0
Mar. 28	Apr. 7	12	19	1.58	1.0	6.0	.09	11	2.2	4.6	.0	28	20	2.6	2.6	70	4.4
Apr. 8	Apr. 17	1	17	17.00	.9	4.6	.07	12	4.6	6.1	[c]9.6	17	23	.9	3.8	72	4.6
Apr. 18	Apr. 27	4	10	2.50	1.6	17	.10	13	5.0	....	.0	34	26	1.0	3.6	92	4.7
Apr. 28	May 7	2	7.2	3.60	1.0	12	.08	14	4.8	8.2	.0	36	25	1.0	3.8	86	4.5
May 8	May 17	18	20	1.11	1.0	7.6	.09	13	6.7	11	[c]16	13	30	.0	4.4	98	4.5
May 18	May 27	1	7.0	7.00	.6	15	.05	14	4.8	8.7	.0	45	25	.5	3.8	95	4.5
May 28	June 6	...	16	.....	1.4	5.6	.06	12	4.5	7.6	.0	23	31	1.3	3.8	77	4.7
June 7	June 15	1	5.4	5.40	.7	10	.07	11	4.2	5.7	.0	32	23	1.5	3.6	76	4.7
June 17	June 26	2	15	7.50	.5	8.8	.05	13	4.2	7.6	.0	37	29	Tr.	4.4	85	4.5
June 27	July 6	3	19	6.33	.4	3.0	.05	14	5.0	6.9	[c]11	11	34	.2	4.2	83	4.6
July 7	July 17	4	4.8	1.20	.6	7.8	.04	14	6.0	7.2	.0	27	37	2.1	4.2	94	4.5
July 18	July 27	42	34	.81	1.8	.....	.21	20	7.6	15	[c]4.8	57	37	1.8	5.8	174	4.3
July 28	Aug. 6	30	35	1.17	.9	.....	.03	15	7.0	11	[c]2.4	35	39	.0	5.8	123	4.2
Aug. 7	Aug. 17	5	5.2	1.04	.6	10	.04	21	9.6	.....	.0	56	38	1.8	7.0	127	4.3
Aug. 18	Aug. 27	4	4.8	1.20	.6	12	.13	24	10	12	.0	78	37	3.0	7.8	139	4.3
Aug. 28	Sept. 6	6	19	3.17	.8	15	.06	24	11	12	.0	78	37	2.2	8.4	147	4.2
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	...	.....	.....	1.8	.....	.06	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	44	.....	6.0	....	4.5
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	40	39	.98	2.4	.....	.30	18	6.6	14	.0	66	31	.8	5.4	146	4.6
Mean		14	21	2.46	1.2	8.8	.10	14	5.7	7.5	.0	40	30	2.2	4.9	95	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		...	.....	.....	.....	9.5	[d]1	15.0	6.1	8.1	21.2	....	32.3	2.4	5.3	....	....

[a] Analyses September 11 to October 31, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 1, 1906, to April 7, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 8 to June 26, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; June 27, 1907, to September 26, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Mauch Chunk, Pa., 30 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Maumee River at Toledo, Ohio.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 9	Sept. 18	55	46	0.84	2.0	28	0.10	58	17	44	0.0	178	44	2.2	91	397
Sept. 19	Sept. 29	70	55	.79	2.4	26	.20	57	16	40	.0	190	44	1.8	76	375
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	53	46	.87	2.4	19	.10	57	16	37	.0	192	43	1.8	71	350
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	37	30	.81	1.4	20	Tr.	67	19	36	.0	221	59	1.9	58	367
Oct. 21	Nov. 1	22	27	1.23	1.0	24	.04	66	22	40	.....	.....	68	1.7	79	416
Nov. 2	Nov. 11	16	14	.87	1.1	17	.03	73	23	49	5.8	208	71	2.1	106	442
Nov. 12	Nov. 23	80	84	1.05	2.2	14	.05	62	21	35	.....	.....	80	4.0	85	404
Nov. 24	Dec. 4	230	105	.46	3.5	16	.16	54	13	14	.0	157	48	19	23	275
Dec. 5	Dec. 15	290	590	2.04	6.6	23	.4	53	13	14	.0	159	47	13	24	277
Dec. 16	Dec. 26	210	112	.53	3.9	27	.3	57	14	18	5.8	160	51	12	24	296
Jan. 6	Jan. 15	350	235	.67	8.0	18	.7	42	8.2	10	.0	134	33	11	12	214
Jan. 16	Jan. 26	375	230	.61	11	17	1.1	37	.....	10	.0	123	29	9.0	12	193
Jan. 27	Feb. 7	55	43	.78	2.1	7.2	1.5	48	12	11	Tr.	151	37	4.5	14	262
Feb. 8	Feb. 18	20	22	1.10	.9	14	.13	77	18	22	5.5	228	69	8.5	38	372
Feb. 19	Feb. 28	12	9.2	.77	.6	15	.03	80	22	29	.0	242	74	6.0	58	410
Mar. 1	Mar. 10	37	29	.78	1.1	11	.04	70	19	25	.0	216	67	6.4	52	356
Mar. 11	Mar. 23	900	402	.45	16	36	.7	44	12	21	6.0	128	40	8.0	26	266
Mar. 24	Apr. 2	730	423	.58	15	5.0	.20	42	11	14	.0	131	41	6.4	13	222
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	98	133	1.36	3.3	6.0	.10	43	12	15	12	102	43	4.8	28	216
Apr. 13	Apr. 23	27	28	1.04	1.2	24	.08	72	18	20	11	210	57	6.0	30	344
Apr. 24	May 3	37	38	1.03	1.3	20	.06	74	20	25	9.6	214	63	3.0	44	373
May 4	May 14	9	13	1.45	.3	13	.03	64	18	25	9.6	178	59	2.5	46	326
May 15	May 23	42	58	1.38	1.0	9.8	.10	60	23	28	8.4	172	58	.3	44	320
May 25	June 3	20	47	2.35	.6	4.8	.08	.....	12	26	Tr.	93	50	.2	42	202
June 4	June 13	175	175	1.00	4.0	18	.18	.....	10	15	8.4	95	34	4.0	19	180
June 15	June 24	250	254	1.02	6.3	18	.18	.....	11	16	Tr.	120	34	Tr.	16	187
June 25	July 2	120	133	1.11	2.2	3.8	.16	.....	12	16	.....	.....	30	2.0	14	162
July 5	July 16	.....	.....	.....	1.9	.....	.12	35	16	26	Tr.	134	44	Tr.	35	232
July 17	July 26	270	195	.72	6.7	24	.6	52	13	24	.0	181	34	5.5	29	283
July 27	Aug. 5	63	61	.97	2.5	19	.7	44	9.0	14	.0	157	22	4.0	12	212
Aug. 6	Aug. 15	40	32	.80	1.2	18	.14	56	12	19	Tr.	199	33	2.2	23	267
Aug. 16	Aug. 26	40	32	.80	1.1	12	.11	64	16	21	.0	228	47	1.6	26	309
Aug. 27	Sept. 7	38	30	.79	1.5	14	.16	63	17	22	.0	224	50	2.2	26	310
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	38	30	.79	.7	22	.08	62	18	29	.0	229	53	1.0	34	339
Sept. 18	Sept. 27	125	122	.98	2.5	18	.6	52	16	23	.0	187	44	1.8	31	289
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	90	44	.49	1.6	22	.5	53	14	27	.0	177	42	2.0	41	292
Mean		143	112		3.4	17	.27	57	16	24	2.5	173	48	4.5	40	298
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.95	.....	5.8	[b] .1	19.4	5.4	8.2	29.7	.....	16.3	1.5	13.6	....

[a] Analyses September 9, 1906, to March 10, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 11 to October 7, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Miami River at Dayton, Ohio.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 16	Sept. 25	32	75	2.34	3.1	16	Tr.	58	28	10	9.0	264	38	0.9	5.0	300	0.7
Sept. 26	Oct. 5	32	58	1.81	.9	21	Tr.	65	28	9.0	9.0	280	35	2.8	5.8	318	.8
Oct. 6	Oct. 15	18	32	1.78	.4	17	Tr.	63	26	9.6	.0	297	37	3.1	5.0	309	.6
Oct. 16	Oct. 25	14	26	1.86	.10	18	Tr.	65	27	9.0	.0	301	40	2.9	5.0	317	.8
Oct. 26	Nov. 4	5	14	2.80	.15	20	Tr.	66	28	11	8.2	291	41	2.0	5.5	327	1.0
Nov. 5	Nov. 14	8	20	2.50	Tr.	20	Tr.	69	29	9.8	Tr.	317	41	2.0	5.3	335	2.0
Nov. 15	Nov. 24	75	89	1.19	2.1	14	0.24	64	27	9.8	11	250	40	7.0	4.3	304	2.8
Nov. 25	Dec. 4	16	21	1.31	.5	19	.05	75	28	7.4	3.6	278	60	15	4.0	346	2.4
Dec. 5	Dec. 14	26	34	1.31	.7	26	.07	75	28	8.2	10	269	62	12	4.7	355	2.5
Dec. 15	Dec. 24	80	54	.67	1.4	15	.23	64	23	6.8	.0	239	52	13	3.0	296	3.0
Dec. 25	Jan. 4	....	177	.....	3.2	16	.19	68	24	7.1	.0	272	52	12	3.5	318	4.2
Jan. 5	Jan. 14	210	118	.56	3.0	14	.5	50	17	6.5	.0	184	36	18	3.6	238	6.5
Jan. 15	Jan. 24	450	223	.50	6.7	15	.7	42	14	7.1	.0	161	29	11	3.4	212	7.5
Jan. 25	Feb. 4	75	49	.65	1.8	16	.6	61	23	8.8	12	229	44	16	4.1	301	3.3
Feb. 5	Feb. 14	45	42	.93	.5	8.8	.05	60	26	8.0	12	215	51	10	3.8	282	2.9
Feb. 15	Feb. 24	11	28	2.55	.4	24	.06	58	25	6.9	13	212	42	11	4.1	298	2.8
Feb. 25	Mar. 6	200	143	.55	4.2	25	.08	67	25	7.4	8.4	246	49	9.0	3.8	320	2.9
Mar. 27	Apr. 6	37	52	1.41	1.0	15	.12	64	24	8.0	12	228	44	10.0	4.6	299	2.2
Apr. 7	Apr. 16	25	67	2.68	.3	20	.14	50	26	8.4	12	200	44	15	5.4	282	2.1
Apr. 17	Apr. 26	25	32	1.28	.6	19	.11	58	25	3.5	16	217	41	15	4.2	298	2.2
Apr. 27	May 6	20	36	1.80	.4	15	.16	62	24	6.3	13	229	39	19	3.8	297	2.5
May 7	May 16	18	35	1.94	.4	23	.11	58	23	3.3	14	217	40	18	4.3	292	2.0
May 17	May 28	37	79	2.14	1.3	14	.10	52	26	3.0	12	218	41	15	3.8	275	1.8
May 29	June 8	240	186	.77	4.4	19	.19	53	20	12	10	197	34	15	4.8	264	3.8
June 9	June 18	280	252	.90	7.0	18	.7	49	18	11	9.6	180	27	17	3.8	252	5.2
June 19	June 28	75	75	1.00	2.6	17	.12	60	22	11	2.4	249	33	6.2	4.8	283	2.5
June 29	July 8	90	168	1.86	1.6	17	.03	42	26	8.2	.0	206	37	1.2	4.2	240	1.9
July 9	July 19	....	351	.....	7.9	30	.35	51	20	14	.0	.....	26	6.4	2.4	254	4.0
July 20	July 29	....	234	.....	3.2	8.6	.04	26	18	12	.0	.....	32	Tr.	.6	163	3.4
July 30	Aug. 8	....	125	.....	1.6	9.2	Tr.	56	24	12	.0	.....	37	1.5	.6	258	2.2
Aug. 9	Aug. 18	....	77	.....	1.0	18	.03	55	25	11	.0	.....	39	1.5	1.4	273	1.4
Aug. 19	Aug. 28	35	48	1.37	.9	9.8	.05	69	29	12	.0	323	34	.0	5.4	331	1.1
Aug. 29	Sept. 7	43	46	1.07	.9	15	.04	63	24	14	.0	287	41	2.5	5.8	304	1.2
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	140	130	.93	2.6	19	.13	59	25	13	.0	251	36	2.2	4.8	289	1.7
Mean		84	94	1.46	2.0	17	.15	59	24	9.0	5.8	244	40	8.6	4.1	289	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	.....	.....	5.9	[b] .1	20.5	8.3	3.1	43.8	.....	13.9	3.0	1.4	....	....

[a] Analyses September 9 to December 4, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 5, 1906, to March 6, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 27 to June 28, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; June 29 to September 17, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Lake Michigan at St. Ignace, Mich.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906–7).	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 20	1	....	17	0.02	27	7.7	4.9	5.9	109	6.6	0.20	2.6	126	581.08
Oct. 20	1	....	9.2	.02	26	7.4	4.4	6.6	103	6.5	.30	2.6	115	580.85
Nov. 20	Tr.	....	9.5	.05	28	8.8	3.4	2.4	117	6.4	.35	2.9	120	580.72
Dec. 20	1	....	10	.06	25	7.1	4.7	1.6	104	6.2	Tr.	2.6	108	580.62
Jan. 20	1	....	6.2	.04	26	8.1	3.2	1.6	110	6.2	.4	2.8	110	580.67
Feb. 19	....	....	12	.03	26	8.4	5.4	3.4	113	7.6	.35	2.8	120	580.64
Mar. 20	....	....	14	.03	25	7.9	5.0	Tr.	111	7.9	.4	2.6	117	580.67
Apr. 21	....	....	8.4	.04	26	8.1	4.7	.0	112	9.5	.3	2.4	115	580.83
May 20	....	....	9.5	.03	27	8.7	5.4	2.6	115	7.8	.25	2.5	121	581.07
June 20	....	....	8.6	.04	26	8.4	6.6	4.5	116	7.7	.55	3.0	120	581.42
Aug. 20	....	....	11	.04	28	9.4	4.2	3.5	120	7.4	.4	3.2	123	581.51
Mean	Tr.	Tr.	10	.04	26	8.2	4.7	2.9	112	7.2	0.3	2.7	118	.....
Perct. of anhydrous residue	....	....	8.5	[c].0	22.2	7.0	4.0	49.6	.....	6.1	0.3	2.3	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Gaging station at Mackinaw, Mich., 5 miles away.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Minnesota River at Shakopee, Minn.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 24	Oct. 4	110	124	1.13	28	0.05	68	33	20	0.0	270	123	1.8	3.5	419	6.6
Oct. 6	Oct. 18	75	83	1.11	28	Tr.	77	40	21	[c]9.6	317	126	1.8	4.2	469	4.6
Oct. 19	Oct. 30	60	61	1.02	24	.10	82	.....	33	.0	331	134	1.3	6.5	477	4.6
Oct. 31	Nov. 10	80	110	1.38	29	Tr.	84	38	27	.0	287	184	1.5	3.5	536	6.4
Nov. 12	Nov. 22	70	74	1.06	29	.05	86	37	25	.0	329	171	.9	4.1	533	5.7
Nov. 23	Dec. 4	70	76	1.08	20	.05	97	39	32	.0	366	182	.9	4.5	580	4.7
Dec. 5	Jan. 1	20	20	1.00	24	Tr.	116	.....	33	.0	444	215	2.6	7.5	606	4.6
Jan. 2	Jan. 12	10	8.0	.80	22	.05	150	58	.....	.0	459	206	1.4	8.7	688	3.4
Jan. 14	Jan. 24	10	4.0	.40	26	Tr.	121	55	30	.0	.....	205	1.4	11	692	3.2
Jan. 25	Feb. 6	5	.....	.....	24	Tr.	126	57	.....	.0	489	211	1.3	.....	722	2.8
Feb. 7	Feb. 21	10	.....	.....	28	Tr.	102	48	39	.0	415	177	5.5	10	609	3.8
Feb. 22	Mar. 5	10	12	1.20	16	Tr.	59	26	22	.0	201	94	2.8	4.8	337	6.0
Mar. 6	Mar. 16	10	.....	.....	18	.03	69	22	20	.0	222	118	2.3	1.4	384	4.6
Mar. 19	Mar. 29	275	422	1.54	19	.40	43	19	15	.0	154	66	1.9	2.0	250	7.8
Mar. 30	Apr. 10	110	142	1.29	13	.18	45	19	14	.0	178	82	1.8	2.0	288	9.4
Apr. 11	Apr. 21	.....	132	.....	11	.15	50	25	23	.0	212	107	1.3	.....	359	7.6
Apr. 22	Apr. 30	50	.....	.....	22	Tr.	72	33	22	.0	266	128	7.8	2.9	439	5.7
May 3	May 14	30	.....	.....	14	.01	99	42	26	.0	294	180	Tr.	3.7	527	5.3
May 15	May 25	30	.....	.....	16	.05	94	43	20	.0	320	203	1.8	3.4	588	4.9
May 28	June 6	80	112	1.40	20	.18	91	40	18	.0	284	177	1.9	2.5	553	6.3
June 7	June 18	175	288	1.64	26	.20	78	34	17	.0	261	153	1.6	1.7	482	9.8
June 19	June 29	105	158	1.50	30	.10	77	32	19	.0	278	137	1.2	.....	447	13.1
July 1	July 12	80	144	1.80	27	.08	78	37	21	.0	310	140	3.4	3.6	477	8.7
July 13	July 24	330	371	1.12	28	.15	71	31	27	.0	287	114	2.7	7.4	419	7.2
July 25	Aug. 5	155	236	1.52	27	.03	71	31	11	.0	279	112	2.2	.....	408	6.3
Aug. 7	Aug. 17	155	180	1.16	30	.05	82	37	27	.0	334	133	1.5	5.8	481	3.8
Aug. 19	Aug. 29	240	256	1.08	25	.04	66	30	21	.0	271	106	1.6	5.0	408	3.8
Aug. 30	Sept. 9	140	.....	.....	.....	.05	66	29	15	.0	236	126	.4	1.9	397	4.2
Sept. 10	Sept. 20	140	113	.81	32	.04	77	32	19	[c]6.0	272	112	1.4	8.2	437	3.0
Sept. 21	Oct. 1	165	141	.85	23	.6	58	19	.....	.0	200	94	1.5	3.0	312	4.0
Mean		97	142	1.18	23	.09	82	35	23	.0	296	144	2.0	4.7	480	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	5.0	[d].0	17.9	7.6	5.0	31.7	.....	31.4	.4	1.0	.....	....

[a] Analyses September 24, 1906, to February 6, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 7 to March 5, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 6 to September 9, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 10 to October 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Mankato, Minn., 60 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Mississippi River at Minneapolis, Minn.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3)	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	25	19	0.76	33	0.10	.....	13	15	0.0	204	8.2	0.8	0.9	225	1.7
Sept. 20	Sept. 30	10	33	3.30	30	.10	40	15	14	.0	182	20	.9	2.5	209	2.5
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	15	29	1.93	19	.10	38	.....	15	.0	.....	14	5.2	3.8	194	3.0
Oct. 11	Oct. 21	10	13	1.30	22	.05	41	16	10	.0	196	25	.4	2.5	191	2.0
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	10	7.4	.74	21	Tr.	42	15	9.2	.0	189	27	.3	2.0	203	2.2
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	15	13	.87	13	Tr.	38	16	11	.0	.....	18	Tr.	1.0	187	2.8
Nov. 11	Nov. 21	10	10	1.00	12	.05	43	16	11	.0	.....	20	.7	1.6	206	2.6
Nov. 22	Dec. 1	5	6.0	1.20	12	.08	46	15	9.9	.0	215	25	.9	2.0	220	4.7
Dec. 2	Dec. 12	10	6.4	.64	13	.10	46	16	7.6	.0	218	23	1.8	1.9	220	9.6
Dec. 13	Dec. 24	5	Tr.	.....	16	.06	47	17	9.8	.0	214	28	.9	1.7	236	....
Dec. 25	Jan. 4	5	Tr.	.....	17	Tr.	47	.....	13	.0	208	20	.9	1.5	217	....
Jan. 5	Jan. 15	5	Tr.	.....	15	Tr.	41	14	7.5	.0	222	.....	1.3	1.7	213	....
Jan. 16	Jan. 26	10	2.4	.24	14	.06	46	16	11	.0	222	18	1.1	2.0	206	....
Jan. 27	Feb. 6	5	Tr.	.....	16	.10	45	18	8.2	.0	222	.....	1.6	1.9	217	....
Feb. 7	Feb. 16	5	Tr.	.....	13	.10	.....	16	12	.0	220	12	2.0	1.9	214	....
Feb. 17	Feb. 26	5	4.0	.80	16	.05	46	14	16	.0	205	24	7.0	2.3	221	....
Feb. 27	Mar. 8	5	2.4	.48	17	.05	43	16	17	.0	222	23	4.6	1.5	218	....
Mar. 9	Mar. 18	10	.....	.....	11	.....	46	.....	9.8	.0	195	15	2.9	2.0	207	....
Mar. 19	Mar. 28	15	29	1.93	12	.05	.....	.....	9.6	.0	147	9.2	1.9	2.2	155	....
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	30	30	1.00	9.0	.25	27	8.8	6.5	.0	127	17	1.2	.3	132	6.2
Apr. 9	Apr. 19	10	Tr.	.....	9.0	.01	26	9.8	7.3	.0	127	20	1.1	.4	160	4.5
Apr. 20	Apr. 29	5	Tr.	.....	15	.15	34	12	8.0	.0	144	20	Tr.	1.5	183	3.1
Apr. 30	May 13	5	Tr.	.....	12	.04	33	13	7.0	.0	156	20	1.9	.....	180	2.3
May 14	May 23	7	.....	.....	15	.02	39	13	.....	.0	178	18	.6	.2	209	1.7
May 24	June 2	5	Tr.	.....	12	.05	35	12	7.9	.0	165	22	.8	.....	205	2.9
June 3	June 13	8	.....	.....	14	Tr.	.....	12	5.2	.0	159	19	1.2	.6	180	3.3
June 14	June 23	5	Tr.	.....	12	.15	37	13	5.7	.0	171	23	1.3	3.3	233	4.0
June 24	July 3	20	.....	.....	18	Tr.	41	15	6.4	.0	193	16	1.1	1.2	221	2.6
July 4	July 13	20	24	1.20	20	.05	44	.....	11	.0	.....	15	1.6	3.1	206	1.3
July 14	July 23	5	Tr.	.....	8.6	.08	44	10	13	.0	198	8.6	.6	Tr.	198	1.0
July 24	Aug. 2	10	.....	.....	5.2	.13	43	11	12	.0	206	14	1.1	1.0	197	.8
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	5	Tr.	.....	13	.11	40	14	11	.0	199	14	T.	1.4	187	.7
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	10	7.6	.76	17	.10	38	14	7.5	.0	173	13	.4	.4	185	1.1
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	5	Tr.	.....	19	.18	35	12	9.0	.0	172	10	.4	1.5	175	1.4
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	5	Tr.	.....	15	.11	37	12	11	.0	185	14	Tr.	.5	173	.6
Mean		10	7.9	1.13	15	.07	40	14	10	.0	188	18	1.4	1.6	200	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	7.8	c.1	20.8	7.3	5.2	48.0	.....	9.3	.7	.8	.....	....

[a] Analyses September 10, 1906, to February 16, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 17 to 26, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 27 to September 11, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Gaging station at Anoka, Minn., 20 miles above.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Mississippi River at Memphis, Tenn.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1907-8). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Jan. 10	Jan. 20	420	353	0.84	.....	40	0.7	....	14	....	0.0	146	....	0.3	6.0	198	32.8
Jan. 21	Jan. 30	350	239	.68	.....	39	.7	32	17	....	.0	129	....	.5	7.0	209	34.9
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	340	264	.78	.....	34	.20	....	.....	....	.0	82	....	.4	7.0	168	39.5
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	270	216	.80	.....	37	.7	29	9.0	....	.0	90	....	.5	5.5	165	28.7
Feb. 20	Mar. 1	420	324	.77	.....	36	1.2	32	18	....	.0	112	....	.6	7.0	186	18.0
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	425	355	.84	.....	34	.8	43	17	....	.0	112	....	.5	10	205	25.8
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	680	615	.90	.....	43	.7	....	12	....	.0	102	....	.3	9.5	172	29.7
Mar. 22	Mar. 31	550	505	.92	.....	40	.7	....	10	....	.0	90	....	.9	9.5	162	34.2
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	960	740	.77	.....	34	1.3	37	12	....	.0	115	....	.2	12	188	32.9
Apr. 11	Apr. 20	680	485	.71	.....	22	1.3	27	11	....	.0	115	....	1.6	6.5	156	23.6
Apr. 21	Apr. 30	550	415	.76	.....	24	1.4	29	8.4	....	.0	104	....	1.8	8.0	161	21.5
May 1	May 10	1,150	816	.71	.....	31	2.8	24	15	....	.0	95	....	1.1	9.0	174	24.7
May 11	May 20	375	386	1.03	.....	31	1.6	26	9.7	13	.0	95	36	2.9	5.0	188	30.8
May 21	May 30	485	484	1.00	.....	19	1.1	30	7.7	13	.0	93	36	5.5	5.1	169	25.8
May 31	June 9	420	332	.79	.....	10	.12	....	12	13	.0	122	46	5.3	6.3	188	19.2
June 11	June 20	1,600	1,421	.89	.....	19	.05	42	12	....	.0	153	63	4.9	5.9	247	27.3
June 21	June 30	1,300	1,161	.89	.....	12	1.6	36	14	....	.0	....	53	4.9	5.5	231	28.2
July 1	July 10	1,400	1,244	.89	.....	16	.18	46	11	28	.0	156	56	5.3	8.7	245	21.9
July 11	July 20	1,000	1,185	1.18	.....	13	.30	49	15	21	.0	....	67	2.2	6.0	246	17.8
July 21	July 30	425	1,389	3.26	.....	14	.11	41	12	28	.0	172	67	2.4	12	250	22.9
July 31	Aug. 9	900	797	.89	.....	16	.08	37	9.3	24	.0	143	41	1.8	9.0	205	22.9
Aug. 10	Aug. 19	950	888	.93	.....	21	.20	39	12	21	.0	144	52	4.0	6.8	220	17.0
Aug. 20	Aug. 29	600	.....	.....	.....	22	.13	41	13	21	.0	149	47	4.6	8.0	236	14.8
Aug. 30	Sept. 8	600	451	.75	.....	17	.17	36	12	22	.0	144	40	1.7	8.5	207	14.1
Sept. 9	Sept. 18	280	307	1.10	10	22	.16	38	12	17	[b] 8.4	130	33	1.2	8.4	204	11.8
Sept. 19	Sept. 28	270	316	1.17	10	24	.14	39	12	13	[b] 7.2	146	34	Tr.	11	218	10.1
Sept. 29	Oct. 8	220	203	.92	7.4	23	.22	39	10	20	[b] 7.2	145	37	Tr.	9.8	219	10.0
Oct. 9	Oct. 18	240	221	.92	8.8	14	.5	35	10	16	Tr.[b]	142	34	Tr.	9.4	198	10.9
Oct. 19	Oct. 28	270	198	.73	11	21	.37	36	13	17	[b] 7.2	134	34	.20	9.6	208	9.9
Oct. 29	Nov. 9	240	316	1.32	8.8	20	.12	43	13	18	[b] 3.6	159	40	Tr.	11	235	7.0
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	230	203	.88	7.9	21	.52	42	13	28	[b] 7.2	159	39	Tr.	14	257	9.0
Nov. 20	Dec. 1	230	215	.93	13	10	.42	36	11	18	Tr.[b]	127	43	Tr.	16	200	12.0
Dec. 2	Dec. 12	180	187	1.04	8.0	5.6	.07	33	10	14	[b] 8.4	106	29	Tr.	9.0	162	11.6
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	170	160	.94	3.5	24	.24	36	12	17	[b] 13	115	32	1.7	9.6	201	8.4
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	265	265	1.00	7.9	26	.56	33	10	16	Tr.[b]	124	35	1.5	9.6	195	13.5
Mean		556	519	.97	.....	24	.61	36	12	19	.0	129	43	1.7	8.6	202	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	11.5	[c] .4	17.3	5.7	9.1	30.5	....	20.6	.8	4.1	....	.....

[a] Analyses January 10 to May 10, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 11 to September 8, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 9, 1907, to January 1, 1908, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Mississippi River at New Orleans, La. [a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-6).		Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Aluminum (Al).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Free carbon dioxide (CO_2).	Mean gage height (feet). [b]
1—	To—														
29	May 6	9.5	0.11	0.63	29	7.5	12	.....	98	22	2.1	9.2	145	13	10.5
7	May 13	8.2	.12	.44	28	6.7	13	.....	100	23	2.1	11	150	25	10.6
14	May 20	8.6	.10	.72	32	7.9	14	.....	100	27	2.1	10	157	15	11.9
21	May 27	8.8	.25	.42	30	7.1	19	.....	103	23	2.1	11	158	38	12.3
28	June 3	8.8	.10	.54	33	7.7	19	.....	110	25	2.1	8.3	166	22	13.2
4	June 10	11	.06	.59	31	7.1	14	.....	105	24	2.1	7.5	156	16	13.9
11	June 17	12	.10	.72	33	7.3	12	.....	115	23	2.0	7.3	157	8.0	13.7
18	June 24	14	.12	.76	34	8.1	14	.....	122	24	2.0	9.8	176	15	12.3
25	July 1	14	.06	.67	35	8.9	14	.....	125	25	2.0	9.4	178	44	10.9
2	July 8	11	.11	.34	35	9.0	15	.....	125	30	2.8	9.9	185	9	10.7
9	July 15	11	.13	.30	34	8.5	18	.....	116	36	2.8	7.7	182	47	11.5
16	July 22	10	.12	.20	33	8.1	18	.....	110	35	2.7	12	183	30	11.9
23	July 29	12	.11	.29	32	7.7	15	.....	108	28	2.6	7.6	168	3	11.4
30	Aug. 5	13	.13	.32	33	8.5	21	.....	116	36	2.7	10	195	47	11.2
6	Aug. 12	15	.15	.27	32	7.8	16	.....	111	29	2.3	10	180	32	10.3
13	Aug. 20	11	.27	.40	32	8.0	19	.....	115	27	2.3	11	179	15	9.1
21	Aug. 26	12	.26	.23	32	8.2	14	.....	115	24	2.4	8.0	169	17	7.4
27	Sept. 2	11	.30	.28	33	8.7	17	.....	122	26	2.5	13	185	20	7.4
. 3	Sept. 9	11	.21	.24	33	9.0	21	.....	120	29	2.4	17	199	62	7.3
. 10	Sept. 16	10	.10	.43	32	8.8	16	.....	118	26	2.3	10	181	20	4.8
. 17	Sept. 23	13	.15	.53	34	9.1	15	.....	126	24	2.5	10	195	51	3.2
. 24	Sept. 30	16	.21	.93	39	10	21	.....	132	30	2.4	18	210	21	4.8
1	Oct. 7	16	.10	.43	33	8.9	17	.....	117	27	2.6	12	190	13	7.6
8	Oct. 14	10	.09	.33	30	6.8	13	.....	106	18	2.3	7.8	157	22	5.4
15	Oct. 21	12	.08	.55	33	8.7	14	.....	118	20	2.3	8.8	170	20	2.8
22	Oct. 28	12	.09	.36	39	11	15	.....	140	23	2.2	11	192	10	1.9
29	Nov. 4	13	.10	.27	42	12	15	.....	151	25	3.0	11	210	19	3.5
. 5	Nov. 11	9.3	.09	.41	34	10	14	.....	123	22	2.8	11	168	31	5.2
. 12	Nov. 18	10	.08	.41	32	9.0	11	.....	115	21	3.2	9.4	158	30	5.1
. 19	Nov. 25	9.6	.11	.29	35	10	12	.....	117	23	3.0	11	169	39	4.7
. 26	Dec. 2	11	.08	.42	33	9.5	13	.....	126	25	2.8	11	181	23	3.5
. 3	Dec. 9	12	.11	.37	39	12	16	.....	142	24	2.8	15	207	23	2.8
. 10	Dec. 16	9.4	.15	.18	42	12	16	.....	145	29	2.7	14	215	24	5.7
. 17	Dec. 23	8.0	.13	.28	33	9.1	11	.....	115	22	3.0	9.5	172	33	8.4
. 24	Dec. 30	6.8	.13	.32	29	7.6	11	.....	94	20	2.8	11	149	39	7.5
1	Jan. 6	9.2	.12	.47	31	7.8	11	.....	98	20	2.3	11	150	18	8.0
7	Jan. 13	9.2	.10	.38	31	8.0	9.4	.....	100	18	2.5	8.2	148	26	8.9
14	Jan. 20	7.6	.09	.25	32	8.0	11	.....	102	23	2.7	11	157	28	10.5
21	Jan. 27	9.2	.11	.37	28	6.7	8.3	.....	92	19	2.6	6.5	136	46	10.7
28	Feb. 3	9.2	.12	.33	29	7.0	8.5	.....	91	18	2.7	8.2	138	44	11.4
. 4	Feb. 10	7.8	.10	.29	28	6.8	7.8	.....	91	17	2.5	6.3	130	50	12.5
. 11	Feb. 17	9.8	.11	.34	27	6.6	7.8	.....	85	18	2.3	6.8	131	37	12.4
. 18	Feb. 24	11	.10	.27	28	7.0	8.4	.....	91	18	2.2	7.0	139	35	10.3
. 25	Mar. 3	9.2	.10	.32	30	8.1	9.7	.....	105	18	2.2	8.0	150	31	7.3
. 4	Mar. 10	13	.12	.44	35	10	11	.....	125	21	2.7	10	168	33	7.1
. 11	Mar. 17	10	.10	.35	35	10	10	.....	116	26	2.8	8.7	165	48	9.8
. 18	Mar. 24	12	.18	.50	30	8.0	9.6	.....	96	22	2.9	8.4	144	44	11.6
. 25	Mar. 31	11	.15	.42	31	8.0	9.4	.....	98	21	2.8	7.3	145	45	8.0
. 1	Apr. 7	9.2	.15	.37	30	7.8	9.5	.....	98	20	2.9	9.0	142	42	12.5
. 8	Apr. 14	9.3	.14	.29	29	7.2	7.9	.....	91	18	2.1	5.3	132	52	13.4
. 15	Apr. 21	8.0	.13	.35	27	7.0	8.3	.....	92	17	3.0	4.8	130	41	14.2
. 22	Apr. 28	11	.13	.24	29	7.2	9.9	.....	92	20	2.5	6.1	137	45	15.5
lean		11	c.13	c.40	32	8.4	13	.0	111	24	2.5	9.7	166	.....	.....
'er ct. of anhydrous residue		7.1	c.1	c.5	20.6	5.4	8.4	34.7	.....	15.4	1.6	6.2	...	....	.....

[a] Analyses by J. S. Porter, chemist, New Orleans water and sewerage board.
[b] Gaging station at Carrollton, La., 5 miles above.
[c] $Fe_2O_3+Al_2O_3$.

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Mineral analyses of water from Missouri River near Florence, Nebr.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7.) From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	2,400	2,776	1.16	30	0.20	53	17	57	0.0	.....	197	1.3	8.0	442	7.1
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	1,080	911	.84	18	.05	88	37	34	.0	215	178	.9	8.7	467	6.2
Oct. 21	Oct. 31	880	1,303	1.48	44	.6	68	25	72	.0	.....	175	.3	9.0	496	6.7
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	1,470	1,495	1.02	36	.5	73	25	53	.0	231	184	1.0	8.7	526	6.4
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	625	730	1.17	27	.5	82	30	57	.0	247	195	.9	9.1	543	5.8
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	350	460	1.32	29	.20	94	30	45	.0	298	212	1.8	9.5	597	5.1
Dec. 2	Dec. 13	325	352	1.08	24	.18	92	38	51	.0	305	211	.9	12	565	4.7
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	80	80	1.00	25	.10	102	38	58	.0	337	237	1.0	12	663	3.7
Dec. 25	Jan. 3	90	80	.89	23	.05	91	33	52	.0	300	222	.9	14	608	....
Jan. 4	Jan. 13	120	140	1.17	23	.05	82	30	.....	.0	270	199	.9	14	545	....
Jan. 15	Jan. 26	230	220	.96	28	.10	97	27	60	.0	309	233	1.4	15	615	....
Jan. 27	Feb. 6	40	68	1.70	34	Tr.	96	32	60	.0	310	224	1.6	15	620	....
Feb. 7	Feb. 16	110	83	.75	27	.15	80	27	50	.0	251	178	1.5	12	499	....
Feb. 17	Feb. 27	1,400	2,691	1.92	36	1.2	50	13	38	.0	154	132	1.6	6.2	340	....
Feb. 28	Mar. 12	750	1,520	2.03	37	1.4	56	13	38	.0	156	143	2.6	5.5	403	10.4
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	2,700	2,854	1.06	39	2.0	51	18	38	.0	156	144	2.9	8.7	393	12.6
Mar. 24	Apr. 2	2,700	2,968	1.10	16	1.0	45	10	62	.0	160	153	1.2	10	394	12.0
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	3,330	3,511	1.06	43	.7	54	15	49	.0	176	128	1.2	7.1	402	12.2
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	3,600	4,071	1.13	55	1.2	61	.....	58	.0	162	204	1.5	6.9	540	12.8
Apr. 25	May 4	3,800	4,026	1.06	67	.65	53	.....	56	.0	152	217	1.2	6.0	548	11.5
May 5	May 14	3,100	2,514	.81	21	.35	52	17	50	.0	163	154	3.6	6.9	390	11.0
May 15	May 24	1,460	1,624	1.11	41	.8	56	18	43	.0	177	167	1.1	8.2	435	10.3
May 25	June 3	7,200	7,726	1.08	16	.10	58	16	56	.0	164	197	1.7	4.6	455	14.0
June 4	June 13	4,000	5,900	1.47	10	.18	58	16	56	.0	164	190	3.8	6.2	444	14.8
June 14	June 24	2,800	4,286	1.53	76	1.2	59	.....	50	.0	162	180	3.8	6.1	530	15.9
June 25	July 4	3,200	3,203	1.00	21	.07	61	12	40	.0	166	.....	1.8	5.0	.....	15.8
July 5	July 14	4,000	5,554	1.39	20	.9	51	16	51	.0	152	179	3.1	.....	416	16.6
July 15	July 24	3,600	2,977	.83	16	.13	50	12	44	.0	161	113	5.0	7.0	325	16.9
July 25	Aug. 3	1,600	1,816	1.14	19	.04	49	7.9	50	.0	171	108	5.5	7.6	340	15.2
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	2,000	1,989	.99	21	.05	47	14	44	.0	163	110	2.0	14	326	13.3
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	1,000	1,180	1.18	26	.04	66	20	37	.0	262	81	1.6	6.0	353	11.9
Aug. 24	Sept. 3	900	1,580	1.75	25	.38	46	14	36	.0	146	96	.9	8.8	300	10.6
Sept. 4	Sept. 13	1,200	968	.81	33	.06	48	13	42	.0	158	115	.9	7.0	322	9.7
Sept. 14	Sept. 23	1,000	847	.85	36	.10	48	13	40	[c]4.8	146	113	.7	8.4	332	9.2
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	900	812	1.16	35	.35	54	17	44	[c]7.2	150	.....	Tr.	7.8	362	8.8
Oct. 4	Oct. 14	1,000	797	.80	33	.14	54	14	46	[c]4.8	161	134	1.2	9.6	373	8.5
Mean		1,726	2,059	1.16	31	.44	65	20	49	.0	203	168	1.8	8.9	454	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	7.0	[d].2	14.6	4.5	11.0	22.5	.....	37.8	.4	2.0	.....	....

[a] Analyses October 1, 1906, to February 6, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 17 to 27, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 28 to September 13, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 14 to October 14, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station near Omaha, Nebr., 5 miles below.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Missouri River near Kansas City, Kans.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7.) From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 4	Oct. 13	2,500	2,231	0.89	31	0.30	60	19	49	0.0	198	138	2.2	13	419	8.5
Oct. 14	Oct. 23	900	942	1.05	26	Tr.	69	21	40	.0	215	154	.4	13	438	7.2
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	1,230	1,680	1:36	33	.5	64	21	.....	.0	217	128	2.2	15	426	8.7
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	1,500	1,470	.98	31	.40	69	22	49	.0	219	150	2.2	13	447	9.0
Nov. 13	Nov. 22	870	840	.97	38	.40	75	24	50	.0	236	164	.9	13	486	8.6
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	475	577	1.21	30	.20	77	22	53	.0	270	158	.4	15	495	7.6
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	500	547	1.09	38	.40	77	21	.....	.0	275	146	1.8	17	510	7.0
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	300	319	1.06	30	.40	85	27	51	.0	307	175	.9	20	525	4.5
Dec. 23	Jan. 2	190	222	1.17	41	.12	91	29	55	.0	334	.....	1.3	22	580	4.5
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	350	374	1.07	39	.40	78	26	49	.0	265	158	2.6	18	503	7.4
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	270	247	.91	35	.35	79	23	52	.0	265	159	3.1	18	493	6.3
Jan. 23	Feb. 2	140	96	.69	41	.08	90	30	55	.0	326	176	2.2	23	579	5.1
Feb. 3	Feb. 12	35	24	.68	43	.20	84	28	68	.0	328	167	2.2	24	590	5.2
Feb. 13	Feb. 22	1,020	1,316	1.29	70	2.8	61	22	61	.0	.....	.....	4.4	16	454	10.2
Feb. 23	Mar. 5	1,400	1,730	1.24	74	.20	56	17	43	.0	156	.....	1.7	8.5	414	13.5
Mar. 6	Mar. 15	1,500	1,896	1.26	41	1.4	52	15	37	.0	164	122	3.4	9.5	392	12.0
Mar. 16	Mar. 25	3,450	2,867	.83	65	2.1	.....	.....	39	.0	164	123	1.9	11	435	13.5
Mar. 26	Apr. 4	2,150	2,619	1.22	55	2.1	.....	10	41	.0	157	.....	2.5	6.3	362	12.7
Apr. 5	Apr. 14	2,800	2,826	1.01	62	2.4	53	15	42	.0	168	137	2.2	8.7	440	13.1
Apr. 15	Apr. 24	3,600	3,496	.97	41	.5	68	11	55	.0	162	179	3.0	9.5	462	13.2
Apr. 25	May 4	3,800	3,938	1.04	89	1.8	.....	20	60	.0	.....	171	Tr.	11	549	12.0
May 5	May 14	2,800	2,350	.84	47	3.2	.....	16	48	.0	160	176	5.3	11	478	11.3
May 15	May 24	1,200	1,952	1.62	49	1.2	58	.....	43	.0	176	.....	3.5	12	394	10.1
May 25	June 3	3,850	4,204	1.10	43	1.1	.....	17	46	.0	171	170	3.9	14	460	13.0
June 4	June 13	5,350	6,611	1.24	20	1.0	53	14	52	.0	161	168	.7	8.5	424	17.7
June 14	June 23	3,200	4,719	1.48	26	.10	56	14	56	.0	157	168	2.6	8.4	418	17.8
June 24	July 4	4,000	3,982	1.00	25	1.2	57	.....	45	.0	178	131	3.5	8.8	406	18.6
July 5	July 14	4,400	4,676	1.06	22	.05	53	10	46	.0	159	143	3.7	8.3	383	19.8
July 15	July 24	3,600	3,147	.87	24	.48	47	13	38	.0	157	103	4.1	6.7	316	22.6
July 25	Aug. 3	2,000	3,458	1.73	15	Tr.	46	.....	37	.0	183	101	3.4	6.0	323	19.1
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	2,700	3,013	1.12	22	.30	44	12	29	.0	.....	99	3.0	5.5	295	16.5
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	2,400	2,651	1.12	21	.28	44	14	.....	.0	136	95	.9	7.0	291	13.8
Aug. 24	Sept. 2	2,000	1,677	.84	18	.05	45	14	.....	.0	152	92	1.3	.....	293	11.1
Sept. 3	Sept. 12	1,700	1,376	.81	20	.03	45	12	31	.0	155	87	1.6	11	307	9.9
Sept. 13	Sept. 22	1,200	878	.73	27	.33	53	10	38	.0	171	105	1.8	13	337	8.5
Sept. 23	Oct. 2	1,075	791	.74	27	.26	53	12	36	.0	167	108	1.6	13	339	8.3
Oct. 4	Oct. 13	1,100	792	.72	26	1.0	53	11	43	[c]Tr.	171	110	1.5	17	349	8.6
Oct. 14	Oct. 21	1,000	668	.67	28	.28	56	9.8	45	[c]Tr.	180	120	1.3	16	389	7.6
Mean		1,909	2,032	1.04	37	.73	62	18	44	.0	202	135	2.2	13	426	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	9.0	[d].2	15.0	4.4	10.7	24.2	.....	32.8	.5	3.2	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 4, 1906, to February 12, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 13 to 22, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 23 to September 12, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 13 to October 21, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Sampling station above the entrance of Kansas River; gaging station below that stream.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Missouri River near Ruegg, Mo.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 27	Oct. 7	1,800	1,784	0.99	29	Tr.	41	12	31	0.0	134	82	.....	14	291	10.3
Oct. 8	Oct. 17	1,900	1,461	.77	29	0.20	54	13	38	.0	195	.....	2.0	12	363	7.6
Oct. 19	Oct. 28	930	972	1.04	46	.10	66	19	55	.0	232	134	1.3	18	445	6.6
Oct. 29	Nov. 7	1,150	1,210	1.05	23	.20	67	22	.....	.0	225	126	1.3	21	424	7.7
Nov. 8	Nov. 17	1,650	1,208	.73	21	.25	68	22	53	.0	.....	133	2.4	15	442	7.6
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	780	885	1.14	24	.20	69	19	42	.0	226	126	1.8	16	421	7.6
Nov. 29	Dec. 9	500	527	1.06	28	.5	56	29	31	.0	227	104	.9	16	383	7.7
Dec. 10	Dec. 20	425	464	1.09	29	.30	69	24	35	.0	245	103	2.2	18	429	7.3
Dec. 21	Dec. 31	300	327	1.09	27	.30	70	26	40	.0	288	114	2.6	.....	438	5.2
Jan. 1	Jan. 10	375	296	.79	25	.40	.....	24	36	.0	268	100	2.2	21	420	6.9
Jan. 11	Jan. 20	550	427	.78	31	.80	54	19	31	.0	188	92	3.2	14	342	10.6
Jan. 21	Jan. 30	1,400	1,566	1.12	.....	.....	31	11	28	.0	.....	.....	4.1	10	262	14.6
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	350	326	.93	49	1.4	40	14	21	.0	127	.....	3.0	8.4	274	8.1
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	400	436	1.09	22	.45	67	20	31	.0	.....	128	4.0	18	378	7.6
Feb. 20	Mar. 1	1,400	1,894	1.35	30	.45	58	16	35	.0	184	97	4.5	14	348	11.0
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	1,000	1,626	1.62	14	.22	48	15	32	.0	159	94	3.7	12	292	10.4
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	2,000	2,016	1.01	41	1.7	50	11	27	.0	164	88	4.1	11	319	12.9
Mar. 23	Apr. 2	1,970	2,435	1.24	27	.7	42	13	39	.0	.....	112	1.1	14	345	11.2
Apr. 3	Apr. 12	2,600	2,389	.92	56	1.8	50	14	34	.0	149	96	3.4	8.9	350	11.2
Apr. 13	Apr. 22	4,000	3,249	.81	46	1.0	51	15	45	.0	173	125	5.0	10	401	11.1
Apr. 23	May 3	3,200	3,070	.96	47	1.6	51	16	38	.0	151	146	2.0	9.3	413	11.7
May 4	May 13	2,300	2,320	1.01	48	1.6	46	15	28	.0	144	102	3.6	7.6	342	13.4
May 14	May 23	1,500	2,270	1.52	33	1.2	39	10	18	.0	130	68	4.1	6.7	271	14.1
May 24	June 4	2,800	2,369	.84	17	.20	.....	14	36	.0	185	98	3.0	11	317	10.4
June 5	June 15	4,800	6,332	1.33	28	.20	52	15	39	.0	160	142	6.6	9.2	385	15.9
June 16	June 25	4,250	1,251	.29	16	.10	55	8.4	44	.0	151	135	2.7	6.9	354	15.6
June 26	July 5	3,600	4,002	1.11	18	.40	54	8.6	36	.0	149	95	5.0	6.3	306	17.4
July 6	July 16	3,600	3,937	1.10	23	.....	45	.....	37	.0	159	.....	1.9	7.0	333	15.8
July 17	July 26	4,000	4,429	1.12	16	.25	49	12	.....	.0	176	77	5.5	5.5	315	18.6
July 27	Aug. 6	3,300	2,460	.74	18	.19	43	.....	38	.0	144	87	2.7	6.0	282	16.0
Aug. 7	Aug. 17	3,900	3,346	.86	20	.10	40	12	40	.0	141	90	2.7	7.3	285	13.2
Aug. 18	Aug. 27	2,600	2,500	.96	17	.01	39	12	31	.0	141	80	2.2	7.3	254	11.5
Aug. 28	Sept. 6	1,000	1,321	1.32	19	.14	46	14	32	.0	153	85	1.1	10	277	9.1
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	1,280	1,050	.82	28	.06	46	12	38	[c] 4.8	156	84	1.3	14	300	8.0
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	1,000	994	.99	28	.19	50	14	38	[c] 4.8	167	88	1.5	14	319	7.0
Sept. 27	Oct. 6	900	889	.99	36	.06	53	14	37	[c] 9.6	173	95	1.4	17	351	6.8
Mean		1,931	1,890	1.02	29	.51	52	16	36	.0	178	104	2.9	12	346	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	8.5	[d] .2	15.3	4.7	10.6	25	.....	30.6	.8	3.5	.....	.....

[a] Analyses September 27, 1906, to February 19, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 20 to March 1, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 2 to September 6, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 7 to September 16, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Hermann, Mo., 70 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Monongahela River at Elizabeth, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Aug. 25	Sept. 3	42	50	1.19	2.7	13	1.0	12	2.2	9.6	0.0	23	34	0.7	2.8	94	8.60
Sept. 4	Sept. 13	34	26	.76	2.0	7.4	.5	15	2.4	9.4	.0	22	45	.6	3.5	97	7.02
Sept. 14	Sept. 23	9	16	1.78	.1	7.2	Tr.	16	4.0	11	.0	8.7	61	1.2	4.7	118	7.36
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	10	9	.90	1.1	6.2	.4	16	4.2	12	.0	4.8	64	.6	4.8	121	7.75
Oct. 4	Oct. 13	18	25	1.39	3.1	4.8	1.1	12	2.8	6.2	.0	16	40	.5	3.8	94	8.13
Oct. 14	Oct. 23	29	25	.86	3.4	9.6	.9	12	2.0	6.3	.0	17	32	1.5	3.4	83	9.06
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	31	34	1.10	2.3	7.4	.9	10	3.0	6.3	.0	21	28	1.2	3.0	74	7.91
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	42	27	.64	3.3	5.4	.7	13	2.6	7.2	.0	12	40	1.8	3.4	82	7.06
Nov. 13	Nov. 22	85	94	1.10	6.3	5.2	.4	15	2.8	7.9	.0	9.8	42	1.6	4.1	90	7.46
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	75	54	.72	3.0	7.6	.8	10	1.4	5.8	.0	20	21	2.6	2.6	66	8.37
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	60	81	1.35	3.7	5.6	.5	10	3.6	6.0	.0	15	28	1.0	3.5	69	11.02
Dec. 13	Dec. 21	....	183	.....	5.6	6.2	.56	8.6	2.4	4.6	.0	15	19	1.5	1.9	56	14.56
Dec. 22	Jan. 2	47	54	1.15	2.5	5.6	.25	10	3.0	5.4	.0	15	27	1.5	2.9	63	12.40
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	80	93	1.16	3.5	4.4	.5	9.8	3.0	4.6	.0	15	24	1.5	2.4	64	13.25
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	350	362	1.03	17	8.2	.7	8.0	.....	4.9	.0	22	18	2.5	3.4	77	24.96
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	21	24	1.14	1.8	6.0	.07	12	3.6	6.5	.0	9.8	44	1.7	2.4	80	9.14
Feb. 2	Feb. 11	110	106	.96	6.1	5.4	.19	11	.6	5.5	.0	12	32	2.5	1.7	64	12.44
Feb. 12	Feb. 21	27	39	1.45	2.8	5.8	.12	13	2.0	6.5	.0	17	37	2.1	2.9	73	10.18
Feb. 22	Mar. 3	28	35	1.25	2.3	5.6	.25	10	1.4	5.5	.0	15	32	2.1	2.9	66	10.42
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	190	123	.65	4.4	6.0	.26	9.6	.4	5.2	.0	18	22	1.9	1.7	54	13.12
Mar. 14	Mar. 24	350	362	1.03	7.5	18	1.0	11	.6	8.5	.0	19	26	2.0	2.9	83	20.00
Mar. 25	Apr. 3	50	47	.94	2.5	5.4	.1	14	3.2	6.6	.0	16	44	Tr.	2.6	85	8.22
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	12	28	2.33	1.6	7.8	.06	18	3.0	12	.0	11	65	2.5	4.2	119	7.28
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	45	61	1.36	2.8	8.8	.46	11	1.8	6.3	.0	16	33	2.8	3.5	78	10.04
Apr. 24	May 3	65	83	1.28	2.6	8.8	.9	8.8	1.0	5.5	.0	18	20	3.0	2.9	63	11.15
May 4	May 13	45	66	1.47	2.1	17	.46	11	1.0	6.8	.0	23	25	1.8	3.0	80	10.82
May 14	May 23	37	49	1.32	2.5	18	.33	11	1.0	9.6	.0	23	27	1.5	3.4	81	9.43
May 24	June 2	40	52	1.30	2.1	12	.95	13	1.2	9.4	.0	22	32	1.8	2.9	87	8.05
June 3	June 12	45	61	1.36	1.9	7.4	.21	11	.8	7.2	.0	22	26	1.5	3.9	70	11.19
June 13	June 22	180	140	.78	4.0	11	.28	17	1.8	8.5	.0	50	24	3.0	3.6	96	11.50
June 23	July 3	38	36	.95	2.3	2.2	.05	14	2.4	5.2	.0	20	37	Tr.	3.6	79	7.50
July 4	July 13	70	66	.93	3.2	11	.28	12	2.0	8.5	.0	21	34	2.7	3.8	90	9.14
July 14	July 23	285	280	.98	13	14	1.4	8.2	1.0	6.6	.0	21	15	2.8	2.2	76	14.53
July 24	Aug. 1	205	158	.77	5.3	9.8	.46	11	1.8	.....	.0	.....	22	2.5	2.6	72	11.23
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	39	40	1.02	2.6	10	.28	13	2.8	7.7	.0	17	37	2.0	3.4	85	7.90
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	70	76	1.08	1.9	7.0	.35	13	2.8	9.3	.0	13	38	3.5	4.8	86	6.85
Aug. 23	Sept. 2	90	41	.45	3.5	8.4	.6	12	2.2	.....	.0	32	28	1.0	4.6	82	9.40
Mean		82	84	1.11	3.7	8.4	.49	12	2.2	7.3	.0	18	33	1.8	3.2	81	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	.....	.....	10.8	[c].9	15.5	2.8	9.4	11.5	.....	42.6	2.3	4.2	....	.....

[a] Analyses August 25 to October 23, 1906, and from November 3 to December 2, 1906, by R. B. Dole; October 24 to November 2, 1906, and from December 3, 1906, to April 3, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 4 to September 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.

[b] Gaging station at Lock No. 4, 10 miles above.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Muskingum River at Zanesville, Ohio.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 3	Sept. 13	130	78	0.60	3.5	15	0.10	47	10	27	0.0	136	40	0.2	60	281	8.1
Sept. 14	Sept. 23	100	26	.26	2.9	23	.30	55	12	27	.0	155	41	.9	71	314	7.8
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	70	53	.76	2.2	32	Tr.	58	13	36	.0	154	52	.0	.....	356	8.1
Oct. 4	Oct. 13	85	62	.73	2.9	15	Tr.	55	11	46	.0	.....	53	2.1	.....	339	9.0
Oct. 14	Oct. 23	48	41	.85	2.6	13	Tr.	52	12	.....	.0	132	51	1.9	65	334	8.8
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	45	45	1.00	1.4	27	.06	53	11	33	5.3	136	50	1.0	62	305	8.6
Nov. 3	Nov. 13	24	17	.71	0.7	14	.03	60	13	36	Tr.	160	49	1.0	77	326	8.2
Nov. 14	Nov. 24	80	58	.74	1.8	12	.06	55	11	33	Tr.	168	50	1.1	.....	301	10.2
Nov. 25	Dec. 4	32	30	.94	1.4	11	.16	41	9.8	19	Tr.	111	43	3.0	38	216	9.5
Dec. 5	Dec. 15	150	111	.72	5.6	15	.23	37	8.4	20	3.6	96	40	4.5	.....	207	11.3
Dec. 16	Dec. 27	.....	95	.....	3.9	10	.19	35	8.4	14	.0	92	38	3.6	29	182	11.4
Dec. 28	Jan. 4	.....	87	.....	7.2	7.6	.14	32	6.0	12	.0	86	.....	3.8	28	169	13.6
Jan. 10	Jan. 20	.....	121	.....	11	13	.75	22	3.6	7.1	.0	61	.....	4.2	13	128	18.6
Jan. 21	Mar. 4	85	71	.84	3.2	11	.19	37	7.6	12	4.8	89	.....	3.7	29	192	11.7
Mar. 9	Mar. 31	480	56	.12	.....	18	.20	28	.....	14	17	36	35	2.1	19	160	17.0
Apr. 6	Apr. 20	17	31	1.82	1.7	9.0	.11	44	9.8	22	.0	117	45	1.5	36	225	10.3
Apr. 21	Apr. 30	215	152	.71	5.8	25	.25	36	7.0	19	.0	93	39	1.6	29	207	13.5
May 1	May 10	42	40	.95	1.8	15	.23	38	8.4	17	.0	102	40	1.5	28	197	11.1
May 11	June 1	81	129	1.59	2.3	16	.09	26	8.8	21	.0	76	42	.0	36	187	11.3
June 2	June 18	105	94	.90	4.0	12	.18	26	7.6	17	.....	.....	35	1.5	24	181	11.8
June 19	July 4	3	52	17.33	1.0	.....	.5	30	9.6	24	2.4	70	42	.0	46	188	8.9
July 5	July 20	110	100	.91	4.0	12	.18	42	9.2	19	.0	127	38	1.2	38	227	9.5
July 21	July 31	260	225	.87	7.7	10	.4	28	5.8	14	.0	83	26	.8	20	150	12.6
Aug. 2	Aug. 11	62	28	.45	1.1	11	.10	46	9.0	21	.0	130	36	.8	37	223	8.8
Aug. 12	Aug. 21	2	11	5.50	0.3	11	.06	58	12	31	Tr.	160	45	.4	65	296	8.0
Aug. 22	Aug. 31	48	43	.90	1.4	7.6	.13	58	12	38	Tr.	145	50	.5	.....	328	8.1
Sept. 1	Sept. 10	35	30	.86	1.0	11	.16	64	12	.....	Tr.	156	51	.4	.....	373	7.8
Mean		96	70	1.71	3.2	14	.18	43	9.5	23	1.3	115	43	1.6	40	244	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	6.0	[b].1	18.5	4.1	9.9	25.0	.....	18.5	0.7	17.2	.....	.....

[a] Analyses September 3 to October 23, 1906, by R. B. Dole; October 21 to March 31, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 6 to September 10, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Neuse River at Raleigh, N. C.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	14	13	0.93	0.9	25	0.4	5.2	1.8	7.1	0.0	.....	2.6	0.0	3.8	68
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	14	11	.78	.5	27	.4	5.6	1.2	7.2	.0	39	1.0	Tr.	3.8	66
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	24	18	.75	.8	25	.4	6.0	1.2	7.9	.0	44	1.2	.0	4.6	68
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	10	5.8	.58	.8	20	.4	7.2	1.8	8.2	.0	39	3.0	.2	5.0	69
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	11	7.6	.69	.9	21	.3	5.4	1.6	7.7	.0	37	2.8	.2	4.6	63
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	9	5.8	.64	.5	21	.3	6.0	2.0	8.2	.0	40	2.8	Tr.	5.2	65
Dec. 1	Dec. 10	11	3.8	.34	.4	22	.3	5.6	1.8	8.0	.0	41	2.8	.0	4.8	65
Dec. 11	Dec. 20	26	16	.61	1.4	22	.65	6.4	1.6	8.0	.0	37	2.1	Tr.	5.8	68
Dec. 21	Dec. 30	45	29	.64	2.1	22	1.8	6.0	2.4	6.5	.0	32	2.3	Tr.	6.5	74
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	17	9.0	.53	1.3	21	.9	5.6	1.6	6.8	.0	35	1.8	Tr.	6.5	68
Jan. 10	Jan. 19	11	6.8	.62	1.0	22	.8	6.8	2.8	7.9	.0	39	3.5	Tr.	5.9	66
Jan. 20	Jan. 29	8	3.4	.42	.9	21	.6	6.4	2.6	7.8	.0	40	2.8	Tr.	5.9	65
Jan. 30	Feb. 8	15	10	.67	1.3	20	.8	6.2	2.6	6.3	.0	37	2.8	Tr.	.....	67
Feb. 9	Feb. 18	29	18	.62	1.5	22	1.4	5.8	1.8	6.0	.0	36	3.1	Tr.	.....	72
Feb. 19	Feb. 28	.....	72	.....	3.9	22	1.7	5.6	1.4	6.0	.0	23	4.9	.7	4.7	79
Mar. 1	Mar. 10	33	12	.36	2.1	22	2.0	5.0	1.2	7.6	.0	25	3.3	.5	4.1	76
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	.....	77	.....	2.8	26	2.6	4.8	1.2	6.9	.0	23	4.6	.6	3.5	85
Mar. 22	Mar. 31	18	20	1.11	1.0	22	.6	6.0	1.8	6.8	[b]2.4	28	2.0	.0	3.8	63
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	48	45	.94	1.8	16	1.3	5.8	1.6	8.2	.0	33	4.1	.5	5.0	62
Apr. 11	Apr. 21	27	19	.70	1.3	39	1.2	6.8	1.8	8.8	.0	40	3.6	.5	5.4	93
Apr. 22	May 2	81	73	.90	2.7	23	2.0	6.4	1.7	8.8	.0	32	4.8	1.0	4.2	77
May 3	May 12	82	67	.82	2.4	28	2.1	6.0	1.4	9.3	.0	32	3.5	.7	4.6	82
May 13	May 22	28	39	1.40	1.3	30	.95	6.2	1.8	11	[b]4.8	29	2.8	Tr.	4.2	78
May 23	June 1	53	57	1.08	1.8	22	.9	6.4	1.8	.....	.0	35	3.3	.9	3.8	66
June 3	June 12	100	96	.96	1.8	32	1.7	5.4	.8	10	.0	34	4.4	.0	3.6	90
June 13	June 22	325	247	.76	7.4	24	2.0	5.6	.8	8.2	.0	28	4.3	1.2	3.0	79
June 23	July 2	325	280	.86	13	39	3.7	8.2	2.0	12	.0	50	3.6	Tr.	4.6	.....
July 3	July 12	48	50	1.04	1.6	24	.9	6.6	.....	9.1	.0	37	3.5	.0	3.6	71
July 13	July 23	160	333	2.08	1.9	24	1.8	4.8	.....	8.5	.0	35	3.3	Tr.	3.0	74
July 24	Aug. 1	120	82	.68	1.6	24	1.5	6.4	3.0	6.3	.0	37	3.9	.8	3.2	75
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	540	428	.79	7.0	43	5.2	3.8	1.9	5.4	.0	18	7.6	.6	3.8	.....
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	70	26	.37	2.6	32	2.2	5.8	.....	5.7	.0	30	3.8	.5	3.2	89
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	40	37	.92	2.6	26	.66	6.8	.....	.....	.0	38	4.6	.6	4.2	75
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	170	113	.66	14	33	3.1	4.8	.....	7.6	.0	32	3.3	.6	.....	.....
Sept. 12	Sept. 21	30	28	.93	3.5	28	.8	6.4	3.4	9.4	.0	44	3.6	.5	4.2	81
Sept. 22	Oct. 1	120	76	.63	7.0	29	2.0	5.4	2.4	7.9	.0	34	3.9	.5	3.8	84
Mean		78	68	.79	2.8	26	1.4	5.9	1.8	7.9	.0	35	3.4	.3	4.4	73
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	37.7	[c]2.9	8.6	2.6	11.5	25.0	.....	4.9	.4	6.4	.....

[a] Analyses October 1 to December 10, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 11, 1906, to March 31, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 1 to July 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 3 to October 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from North Platte River near North Platte, Nebr.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	120	91	0.16	.....	0.10	37	8.5	28	0.0	161	54	Tr.	5.0	262	1.9
Sept. 20	Oct. 1	110	117	1.06	63	1.1	50	17	36	.0	167	114	1.8	6.7	285	2.0
Oct. 2	Oct. 14	90	68	.75	50	.10	40	11	29	.0	168	63	.4	6.1	277	1.9
Oct. 15	Oct. 24	85	71	.84	42	.15	46	11	31	.0	155	72	Tr.	7.9	289	2.0
Oct. 25	Nov. 3	290	275	.95	50	.15	41	11	27	.0	155	62	1.0	5.7	264	2.4
Nov. 4	Nov. 13	240	154	.64	25	.30	40	11	.....	.0	169	69	1.3	9.2	292	2.4
Nov. 14	Nov. 23	150	129	.86	43	.40	50	12	35	.0	189	91	.4	9.0	327	2.1
Nov. 24	Dec. 3	130	116	.89	44	.20	46	11	35	.0	168	78	.4	6.7	300	2.2
Dec. 4	Dec. 13	160	118	.74	48	.35	50	16	37	.0	179	.....	1.3	8.0	333	....
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	140	115	.82	52	.15	51	15	39	.0	205	102	Tr.	9.2	372	....
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	150	122	.81	43	1.2	47	14	37	.0	178	88	Tr.	8.1	306	....
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	20	12	.60	35	Tr.	52	14	37	.0	198	97	.4	9.5	326	....
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	20	14	.70	36	.05	56	15	41	.0	212	102	.2	9.4	359	....
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	150	117	.78	37	.12	54	14	39	.0	187	84	.0	11	351	....
Feb. 3	Feb. 12	150	138	.92	30	.12	46	9.5	31	.0	162	76	.7	7.3	272	....
Feb. 13	Feb. 22	300	330	1.10	34	.10	52	12	.....	.0	146	41	2.8	6.7	270	....
Feb. 23	Mar. 4	210	148	.70	45	.15	47	12	34	.0	170	82	1.6	7.0	309	....
Mar. 5	Mar. 15	240	148	.62	31	.08	52	14	36	.0	167	.....	.9	10	331	....
Mar. 16	Mar. 25	165	119	.72	30	Tr.	47	13	34	.0	186	86	.4	9.0	319	....
Mar. 26	Apr. 4	1,840	1,715	.93	56	.05	52	11	30	.0	146	112	.8	4.0	331	....
Apr. 5	Apr. 14	800	585	.73	52	.10	43	11	26	.0	145	77	1.8	6.7	314	2.5
Apr. 15	Apr. 24	675	436	.64	43	.30	44	12	28	.0	145	84	.7	7.3	285	2.4
Apr. 25	May 4	440	426	.97	41	.55	38	.....	24	.0	135	67	.5	4.8	258	2.5
May 5	May 14	165	187	1.13	38	.20	39	11	23	.0	144	68	1.1	5.5	264	2.3
May 15	May 24	370	608	1.64	40	.22	42	10	31	.0	156	63	1.9	4.5	272	2.4
May 25	June 3	680	1,036	1.52	35	.40	41	7.9	26	.0	146	59	1.8	5.3	260	3.2
June 4	June 13	350	697	2.00	34	.48	38	9.4	21	.0	137	58	5.0	4.7	246	3.4
June 14	June 23	375	534	1.42	26	.18	43	6.2	32	.0	148	56	6.2	4.4	249	3.3
June 24	June 30	290	381	1.32	13	.05	39	5.1	26	.0	156	54	1.3	2.5	219	3.5
Mean		307	311	.95	40	.26	46	12	32	.0	165	76	1.2	6.9	295	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	13.5	[b].1	15.6	4.1	10.8	27.5	.....	25.7	.4	2.3	.....	....

[a] Analyses September 10, 1906, to February 12, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 13 to 22, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 24 to June 30, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Fe_2O .

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Mineral analyses of water from Oconee River near Dublin, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 18	Oct. 27	55	23	0.42	.....	29	0.6	9.0	1.2	.....	0.0	33	.....	0.4	4.0	76	1.4
Oct. 28	Nov. 6	75	51	.68	.....	32	2.0	11	.8	.....	.0	39	.....	.4	4.0	83	.6
Nov. 7	Nov. 17	85	28	.33	.....	31	.9	8.8	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.7	2.0	68	.8
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	85	65	.76	.....	24	.40	8.8	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.1	4.0	70	1.9
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	80	52	.65	.....	26	.5	9.6	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.7	4.5	78	.9
Dec. 8	Dec. 17	155	94	.61	.....	31	.7	12	.....	.....	.0	49	.....	.9	4.8	89	1.7
Dec. 19	Jan. 3	160	125	.78	.....	28	1.2	8.3	.8	.....	.0	27	.....	.8	5.0	83	3.1
Jan. 4	Jan. 15	105	85	.81	.....	20	.5	5.7	Tr.	.....	.0	20	.....	.4	4.0	61	3.4
Jan. 16	Jan. 26	38	32	.84	.....	30	.9	14	4.4	.....	.0	51	.....	1.1	4.2	94	1.4
Jan. 27	Feb. 6	80	59	.74	.....	26	.8	12	.....	.....	.0	56	.....	1.2	3.0	85	4.3
Feb. 7	Feb. 18	40	36	.90	.....	22	1.0	5.6	1.2	.....	.0	20	.....	.5	5.0	60	7.5
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	240	204	.85	.....	34	1.1	7.6	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.6	2.5	69	6.9
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	110	100	.91	.....	16	.6	9.6	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.4	2.0	50	3.2
Mar. 22	Mar. 31	35	28	.80	.....	24	1.6	12	1.6	.....	.0	41	.....	.3	4.0	73	1.6
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	75	65	.87	.....	20	1.3	9.6	1.6	.....	.0	32	.....	.2	6.5	64	1.6
Apr. 11	Apr. 24	185	176	.95	.....	20	2.4	10	2.4	.....	.0	34	.....	.4	5.0	66	3.3
Apr. 25	May 4	95	75	.79	.....	16	1.8	7.0	1.6	.....	.0	24	.....	.3	2.5	48	5.4
May 5	May 14	200	206	1.03	.....	18	2.5	10	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.2	4.5	61	4.0
May 15	May 24	100	69	.69	6.1	18	.42	7.8	2.2	8.4	.0	44	5.4	4.0	2.2	70	1.9
May 25	June 3	350	232	.66	15	21	Tr.	7.7	2.0	11	.0	43	6.2	1.5	2.6	68	1.4
June 4	June 13	375	220	.59	16	22	Tr.	6.6	2.2	7.9	.0	45	5.6	1.0	1.9	69	.9
June 14	June 23	400	275	.69	16	11	Tr.	6.3	2.1	8.1	.0	38	6.0	Tr.	1.4	51	1.0
June 24	July 3	230	266	1.16	12	10	Tr.	6.6	3.2	8.3	.0	34	8.1	.6	1.8	54	2.4
July 4	July 14	350	354	1.01	15	15	Tr.	6.6	1.6	9.4	.0	37	4.9	3.2	2.4	57	1.6
July 15	July 24	400	233	.58	9.6	13	Tr.	7.1	1.9	6.2	[b]4.8	27	7.5	.6	3.1	62	.8
July 25	Aug. 2	650	504	.77	28	17	Tr.	6.3	1.9	8.1	.0	34	6.3	2.3	3.4	62	2.7
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	400	266	.66	19	14	.02	5.9	1.2	7.9	.0	32	6.1	2.0	2.9	55	.9
Aug. 15	Aug. 24	425	460	1.08	34	21	Tr.	7.2	.9	10	.0	40	5.4	4.2	3.1	74	2.0
Aug. 26	Sept. 7	290	205	.71	16	18	Tr.	6.9	1.1	7.9	.0	40	5.0	.7	2.4	62	.7
Sept. 8	Sept. 17	400	328	.82	24	18	Tr.	6.4	1.1	12	.0	41	5.5	1.0	2.6	63	1.0
Sept. 28	Oct. 7	350	379	1.08	15	16	.02	11	1.7	8.3	.0	54	7.4	1.7	4.9	84	3.9
Oct. 8	Oct. 17	40	....	.....	3.5	15	.6	8.5	1.9	9.2	.0	50	7.5	Tr.	2.8	....	.4
Mean		208	171	.78	.....	21	.68	8.5	1.6	8.8	.0	37	6.2	1.0	3.4	68	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	.....	.....	30.2	[c]1.4	12.2	2.3	12.6	26.1	.....	8.9	1.4	4.9	....	....

[a] Analyses October 18, 1906, to May 14, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 15 to October 17, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Ocmulgee River near Macon, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 19	Oct. 28	35	27	0.77	.....	12	0.6	5.6	1.6	.....	0.0	20	.....	0.1	4.0	50	3.7
Oct. 29	Nov. 7	49	14	.29	.....	32	.5	5.2	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.5	3.0	66	2.9
Nov. 8	Nov. 17	50	18	.36	.....	30	.20	8.3	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.5	1.5	77	3.0
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	65	26	.40	.....	30	.30	7.5	1.2	.....	.0	22	.....	.2	1.8	72	4.0
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	60	24	.40	.....	26	.9	8.1	1.6	.....	.0	25	.....	.6	1.5	77	2.8
Dec. 8	Dec. 17	75	46	.61	.....	29	.7	9.6	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.8	1.7	75	3.3
Dec. 21	Jan. 4	30	20	.67	.....	26	.9	4.4	Tr.	.....	.0	15	.....	.1	4.0	56	5.4
Jan. 5	Jan. 16	60	42	.70	.....	18	.8	3.6	Tr.	.....	.0	12	.....	.5	3.5	88	4.3
Jan. 17	Jan. 26	40	28	.70	.....	21	.8	3.6	Tr.	.....	.0	12	.....	.4	2.0	46	3.3
Jan. 27	Feb. 5	240	189	.79	.....	34	1.8	4.6	2.4	.....	.0	...	.....	.5	2.5	64	7.2
Feb. 6	Feb. 15	75	60	.80	.....	32	.8	7.6	Tr.	.....	.0	24	.....	.4	2.0	58	7.8
Feb. 16	Feb. 25	40	33	.83	.....	33	.7	8.0	1.6	.....	.0	27	.....	.3	1.5	57	4.0
Feb. 26	Mar. 7	210	178	.85	.....	38	1.4	6.8	Tr.	.....	.0	22	.....	1.2	3.5	71	8.9
Mar. 8	Mar. 17	55	46	.84	.....	15	.8	6.0	0.8	.....	.0	20	.....	.6	3.0	47	5.0
Mar. 18	Mar. 27	35	27	.77	.....	14	1.0	9.6	Tr.	.....	.0	29	.....	.5	3.5	52	3.4
Mar. 28	Apr. 6	25	23	.92	.....	27	1.2	11	Tr.	.....	.0	34	.....	.7	3.5	70	3.1
Apr. 7	Apr. 16	30	29	.97	.....	23	2.1	9.2	Tr.	.....	.0	29	.....	.8	4.0	64	3.4
Apr. 17	Apr. 26	560	511	.91	.....	21	1.7	5.5	1.2	.....	.0	24	.....	1.6	2.5	48	7.7
Apr. 27	May 6	450	416	.92	.....	24	1.4	4.5	.8	.....	.0	15	.....	1.8	3.0	50	5.3
May 7	May 16	204	158	.77	.....	31	1.1	6.7	.....	10	.0	40	3.3	1.0	5.0	96	4.5
May 17	May 26	45	31	.69	.....	25	2.0	5.7	2.9	8.1	.0	43	2.0	.3	4.0	85	3.0
May 27	June 5	310	234	.75	.....	26	1.2	4.9	2.8	11	.0	....	5.9	.4	2.5	91	3.1
June 6	June 15	226	179	.79	.....	23	1.2	5.7	2.6	4.4	.0	37	4.9	.4	3.0	78	2.8
June 16	June 26	410	241	.59	.....	25	2.4	4.1	2.4	6.9	.0	31	4.8	1.1	4.0	86	2.5
June 27	July 11	670	527	.79	.....	23	2.0	6.5	1.5	6.3	.0	31	5.2	.7	3.5	84	4.3
July 12	July 21	416	331	.79	.....	32	1.6	8.1	2.2	7.5	.0	41	6.8	1.0	4.0	94	2.2
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	1,100	807	.73	21	7.5	Tr.	5.0	1.5	6.8	.0	24	4.7	1.1	1.4	35	2.7
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	580	552	.95	35	21	Tr.	5.8	1.8	11	.0	40	4.3	1.2	1.8	64	3.3
Aug. 24	Sept. 9	550	414	.75	16	16	Tr.	5.8	1.8	6.6	.0	32	4.7	1.3	2.6	53	1.7
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	270	133	.49	10	41	Tr.	6.4	2.3	7.4	.0	38	5.8	.9	1.0	87	1.1
Sept. 20	Sept. 30	400	260	.65	8.9	29	Tr.	5.1	1.8	11	.0	34	6.4	1.0	2.3	70	3.7
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	180	90	.50	2.6	42	Tr.	5.7	1.8	11	.0	37	.....	.7	3.0	85	1.6
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	35	32	.91	1.1	28	Tr.	4.7	1.4	8.1	.0	30	5.5	.6	3.2	70	.9
Mean		230	174	.72	.....	26	.9	6.3	1.2	8.3	.0	28	4.9	.7	2.8	69	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	....	....	.....	39.8	[b]2.0	9.6	1.8	12.7	21.2	....	7.5	1.1	4.3	....	....

[a] Analyses October 19, 1906, to May 6, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 7 to July 21, 1907, by W. D. Collins; August 3 to October 21, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Oostanaula River near Rome, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	25	18	0.72	....	9.6	Tr.	12	.....	.....	0.0	39	.....	0.1	2.0	63	6.1
Oct. 31	Nov. 9	40	14	.35	....	23	0.30	12	.....	.....	.0	46	.....	.6	3.0	81	2.8
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	140	120	.86	....	34	.40	9.9	.....	.....	.0	39	.....	.3	....	79	3.3
Nov. 20	Dec. 1	125	96	.77	....	34	.6	11	1.2	.....	.0	37	.....	.4	1.5	85	14.4
Dec. 2	Dec. 11	95	69	.73	....	29	.40	9.6	.....	.....	.0	34	.....	.6	1.5	70	3.6
Dec. 12	Dec. 21	105	77	.73	....	27	.9	8.2	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.8	1.8	66	6.3
Dec. 22	Dec. 31	70	53	.76	....	25	.7	11	1.6	.....	.0	44	.....	.4	2.0	82	6.6
Jan. 1	Jan. 10	65	41	.63	....	22	.8	9.6	1.2	.....	.0	37	.....	.6	1.5	62	8.0
Jan. 11	Jan. 20	25	16	.64	....	14	.20	11	1.2	.....	.0	37	.....	1.0	1.8	67	3.0
Jan. 21	Jan. 31	30	21	.70	....	21	.8	13	1.2	.....	.0	44	.....	.2	1.5	75	3.2
Feb. 1	Feb. 10	40	28	.70	....	18	.6	11	3.2	.....	.0	41	.....	.7	2.0	66	9.0
Feb. 11	Feb. 20	4	3.6	.90	....	13	.7	11	0.8	.....	.0	37	.....	.3	2.0	54	3.6
Feb. 21	Mar. 4	165	124	.75	....	33	1.3	14	2.0	.....	.0	44	.....	.4	3.0	83	9.7
Mar. 5	Mar. 14	45	38	.84	....	16	.9	7.6	Tr.	.....	.0	24	.....	.4	2.0	47	6.1
Mar. 15	Mar. 24	25	23	.92	....	18	1.2	15	1.2	.....	.0	51	.....	.8	1.0	76	4.0
Mar. 25	Apr. 3	12	10	.83	....	19	1.2	11	.....	.....	.0	34	.....	.6	2.5	62	3.1
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	65	56	.86	....	17	1.4	14	3.2	.....	.0	.....	.....	.4	2.0	70	3.4
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	60	56	.93	....	8.8	1.4	15	4.0	.....	.0	59	.....	.2	2.0	68	3.6
Apr. 24	May 2	260	236	.91	....	7.8	1.6	13	.....	.....	.0	51	.....	.0	3.0	61	4.7
May 3	May 13	220	220	1.00	....	18	.7	15	3.3	8.8	.0	72	2.6	.8	1.0	100	4.2
May 14	May 23	150	149	1.00	....	18	1.0	11	3.1	11	.0	72	4.3	.0	1.5	92	5.4
May 24	June 5	340	318	.93	....	29	1.6	12	3.2	11	.0	71	4.3	.6	1.5	120	5.0
June 6	June 15	200	170	.85	....	25	.6	.....	3.3	6.0	.0	74	4.8	.0	2.5	99	3.8
June 16	June 26	180	114	.63	....	28	.40	14	4.1	8.2	.0	78	3.6	.6	2.0	101	2.4
June 27	July 7	415	378	.91	....	26	1.2	12	3.7	6.6	.0	68	3.8	.7	2.0	106	2.9
July 8	July 17	370	370	1.00	....	39	.8	13	3.9	12	.0	78	5.5	.4	2.0	122	2.4
Aug. 7	Aug. 16	260	234	.90	....	31	Tr.	9.6	4.6	13	.0	73	5.1	1.0	1.0	105	1.9
Aug. 17	Aug. 26	260	198	.76	....	23	Tr.	13	2.9	9.4	.0	67	4.8	1.0	0.6	87	2.0
Sept. 27	Oct. 6	125	87	.70	....	47	Tr.	7.3	3.2	7.6	.0	51	3.6	.5	1.7	109	2.6
Oct. 7	Oct. 17	45	37	.80	1.2	44	Tr.	14	5.0	7.9	.0	74	3.8	....	1.2	118	1.5
Oct. 18	Oct. 28	10	8.8	.88	Tr.	17	Tr.	11	2.9	9.1	.0	70	3.3	....	1.8	81	1.0
Mean		128	109	.80	....	24	.7	12	2.6	9.2	.0	53	4.1	.4	1.8	82	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	....	29.6	[b]1.2	14.8	3.2	11.3	32.2	....	5.0	.5	2.2	....	....

[a] Analyses October 21, 1906, to May 2, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 2 to July 17, 1907, by W. D. Collins; August 7 to October 28, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Oswegatchie River at Ogdensburg, N. Y.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Aug. 28	Sept. 10	8	8	1.00	1.2	12	0.4	11	2.9	.....	0.0	45	6.2	0.0	Tr.	80	4.6
Sept. 11	Sept. 20	9	9	1.00	.3	14	.28	11	3.2	.....	.0	45	4.8	.0	Tr.	82	4.8
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	7	6	.86	.5	13	.4	12	3.4	.....	.0	49	7.4	Tr.	Tr.	91	4.6
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	8	6	.75	5.2	13	Tr.	9.6	4.8	.....	.0	36	7.2	.0	Tr.	81	5.1
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	6	6.4	1.07	.2	13	Tr.	12	3.6	.....	.0	46	6.6	Tr.	Tr	83	6.0
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	8	14	1.75	.5	15	Tr.	14	4.0	6.9	.0	59	7.1	Tr.	Tr.	90	6.6
Oct. 31	Nov. 9	7	4.6	.66	.1	14	.10	15	3.8	6.5	.0	64	7.9	.0	Tr.	94	6.0
Nov. 10	Nov. 20	9	13	1.44	.5	16	.20	15	4.0	6.1	.0	59	13	.0	Tr.	100	5.5
Nov. 22	Nov. 30	10	9.0	.90	.6	11	.30	13	3.6	4.9	.0	56	8.6	.0	Tr.	83	6.3
Dec. 1	Dec. 11	6	9.4	1.57	.1	7.8	.10	15	3.4	5.8	.0	59	8.6	Tr.	Tr.	84	6.1
Dec. 12	Dec. 22	5	2.8	.56	.7	10	.18	13	4.4	4.9	.0	53	9.0	.9	.7	79	5.7
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	7	4.8	.68	.6	8.5	.21	15	4.8	3.5	.0	59	8.5	.6	.5	83	5.4
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	17	14	.82	.6	8.8	.21	13	4.0	3.3	.0	51	7.9	.6	.2	72	7.0
Jan. 12	Jan. 21	6	3.4	.57	.4	7.5	.16	14	4.2	3.6	.0	52	6.9	1.0	.6	78	6.5
Jan. 22	Feb. 1	7	4.2	.60	.3	8.0	.16	12	3.4	3.5	.0	51	7.7	.6	1.6	72	6.5
Feb. 2	Feb. 12	18	16	.89	.3	5.6	.10	13	2.0	4.1	[b]6.8	40	6.4	.0	Tr.	70	5.1
Feb. 13	Feb. 22	9	4.4	.49	.4	8.6	.18	12	2.8	4.9	.0	46	7.1	1.0	2.2	69	4.7
Feb. 23	Mar. 6	10	5.6	.56	.4	8.4	.14	12	2.8	3.9	.0	44	8.7	1.2	Tr.	70	4.6
Mar. 7	Mar. 18	7	3.2	.46	.3	9.2	.14	10	2.8	5.2	.0	37	9.4	1.9	Tr.	67	4.9
Mar. 19	Mar. 29	10	30	3.00	.8	3.0	.05	11	2.8	5.7	.....	....	6.8	.0	Tr.	64	6.8
Apr. 10	Apr. 19	6	10	1.67	.5	12	.13	14	3.9	6.8	.0	59	7.1	1.9	1.9	78	6.3
Apr. 20	Apr. 30	9	17	1.89	.8	12	.15	14	4.1	6.3	.0	60	7.2	1.0	.2	80	5.5
May 1	May 10	23	27	1.18	1.4	.....	.30	14	3.7	6.4	.0	57	7.6	1.4	.6	87	6.8
May 11	May 20	8	21	2.62	.7	8.2	.10	14	3.8	7.5	[b]2.4	56	7.1	Tr.	1.0	75	6.3
May 21	May 30	3	8.5	2.83	.4	7.6	.13	13	3.6	6.1	.0	56	7.6	Tr.	.6	74	5.4
May 31	June 9	8	17	2.12	.5	7.2	.14	14	3.5	4.6	[b]4.1	53	7.1	.8	.2	73	5.3
June 11	June 20	3	18	6.00	.5	8.2	.12	14	3.9	4.6	.0	61	7.4	.8	.6	78	4.9
June 21	June 30	8	13	1.62	1.0	.....	.35	12	3.2	5.6	.0	64	9.1	.5	.2	88	4.8
July 1	July 10	15	13	.87	.8	6.4	.30	12	3.6	.....	.....	....	10	Tr.	.6	69	4.9
July 11	July 20	10	17	1.70	.8	6.6	.21	12	2.7	6.3	.0	49	9.3	Tr.	Tr.	69	4.7
July 21	July 30	10	11	1.10	.8	5.4	.35	12	3.8	5.4	.0	....	8.2	Tr.	Tr.	62	4.5
July 31	Aug. 10	5	5.6	1.12	.9	6.2	.44	11	3.3	4.7	.0	....	9.4	.3	1.2	60	4.5
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	5	7.2	1.44	.9	7.6	.52	11	3.2	.....	.0	....	10	.2	.6	65	4.4
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	7	7.2	1.03	.9	9.4	.56	10	3.4	.....	.0	....	12	.2	1.2	75	4.4
Aug. 31	Sept.. 9	3	4.6	1.53	.8	7.6	.35	10	3.5	6.3	.0	....	13	.2	Tr.	70	4.5
Mean.....		8	10	1.38	.7	9.4	.21	13	3.5	5.3	.0	53	8.2	.4	.4	77	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue..		....	.....	.....	....	14.1	[c].4	19.5	5.3	8.0	39.2	....	12.3	.6	.6	....	....

[a] Analyses August 28 to December 11, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 12, 1906, to March 29, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 10 to June 30, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 1 to September 9, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Pearl River near Jackson, Miss.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 16	Oct. 26	45	28	0.62	.....	13	.....	5.2	0.8	.....	0.0	20	.....	0.4	5.0	48	17.8
Oct. 27	Nov. 8	75	38	.51	.....	27	0.20	5.5	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.9	4.0	69	3.0
Nov. 9	Nov. 20	30	8.0	.67	.....	21	.7	9.6	1.2	.....	.0	32	.....	.4	1.8	67	2.0
Nov. 21	Dec. 3	35	14	.40	.....	23	.8	10	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.7	2.0	72	3.3
Dec. 4	Dec. 15	40	22	.55	.....	19	.7	12	1.2	.....	.0	41	.....	.9	2.2	65	3.4
Dec. 26	Jan. 5	105	76	.72	.....	28	.30	6.5	Tr.	.....	.0	22	.....	.5	6.0	62	7.8
Jan. 6	Jan. 15	55	47	.85	.....	32	.9	4.7	.4	.....	.0	20	.....	1.0	4.2	77	9.6
Jan. 16	Jan. 26	25	18	.72	.....	19	.6	.	1.6	.....	.0	54	.....	.7	6.0	76	5.0
Jan. 28	Feb. 6	60	38	.63	.....	19	.5	4.4	1.2	.....	.0	.....	.....	.9	4.0	52	7.9
Feb. 7	Feb. 16	30	26	.87	.....	15	.40	4.4	1.2	.....	.0	15	.....	.3	3.5	43	18.5
Feb. 17	Feb. 26	90	84	.93	.....	20	.10	4.4	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.1	3.5	46	8.9
Mar. 1	Mar. 16	85	63	.74	.....	14	.20	4.4	Tr.	.....	.0	12	.....	.2	4.0	36	23.0
Mar. 17	Mar. 26	60	40	.67	.....	13	.10	10	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	1.8	50	9.5
Mar. 27	Apr. 5	30	26	.87	.....	20	.40	8.8	.8	.....	.0	29	.....	.8	4.5	61	4.3
Apr. 6	Apr. 18	160	175	1.10	.....	16	.5	8.4	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.6	2.5	60	3.7
Apr. 19	Apr. 29	35	56	1.60	.....	31	2.8	4.0	.....	.....	.0	.....	.....	.7	2.5	52	7.9
Apr. 30	May 9	170	147	.86	.....	23	1.7	5.0	Tr.	.....	.0	17	.....	.9	3.0	46	12.4
May 10	May 23	60	47	.78	2.8	10	.05	5.1	1.2	7.9	.0	28	5.5	1.0	2.5	50	21.0
May 24	June 2	60	50	.83	6.6	11	.10	6.2	1.6	6.7	.0	28	6.7	1.1	2.6	45	12.7
June 3	June 13	45	38	.84	4.4	26	.07	7.9	1.4	8.3	.0	44	6.6	1.0	3.1	79	5.4
June 14	June 23	50	50	1.00	9.6	24	.04	8.1	1.6	11	.0	44	7.4	1.2	3.4	74	3.6
June 24	July 3	50	50	1.00	11	20	Tr.	9.7	1.6	13	.0	56	6.2	.5	3.2	76	2.7
July 4	July 13	100	59	.59	7.0	13	.03	7.0	1.9	14	.0	30	11	.....	5.5	75	3.4
July 14	July 23	45	36	.80	7.9	15	.03	8.6	1.7	9.6	.0	45	6.9	.9	3.2	65	2.6
July 24	Aug. 3	15	41	2.73	3.5	13	.03	9.7	1.6	8.8	.0	40	6.8	Tr.	2.9	54	1.9
Aug. 4	Aug. 14	30	15	.50	3.5	11	.03	8.3	1.7	7.6	.0	40	6.2	.7	2.6	52	1.9
Aug. 15	Aug. 24	45	37	.82	2.4	11	.04	7.7	1.4	8.3	.0	32	6.1	2.2	5.0	59	2.1
Aug. 25	Sept. 3	45	33	.73	5.2	12	.04	6.3	.9	7.9	.0	29	4.9	.8	2.6	53	2.5
Sept. 4	Sept. 14	40	37	.92	3.2	13	.04	7.4	1.0	9.2	.0	38	4.8	.0	2.6	56	1.9
Sept. 15	Sept. 26	50	32	.64	6.1	9.7	.03	6.9	1.5	4.7	.0	30	4.7	.7	2.4	41	1.5
Sept. 27	Oct. 7	10	16	1.60	2.8	14	.03	8.0	2.1	8.3	.0	41	6.0	Tr.	3.6	63	1.0
Oct. 8	Oct. 19	30	21	.70	2.3	8.9	.03	6.9	1.3	8.3	.0	37	5.6	.2	2.9	52	1.3
Mean		56	46	.93	.....	18	.37	7.1	1.1	8.9	.0	32	6.4	.7	3.4	59	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	29.1	[b].8	11.5	1.8	14.4	25.5	....	10.3	1.1	5.5	....	....

[a] Analyses October 16, 1906, to May 8, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 10 to October 19, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Pedee River near Pedee, N. C.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 26	Nov. 5	40	28	0.70	.....	39	Tr.	9.1	1.6	.....	0.0	34	.....	0.4	3.5	87	3.0
Nov. 6	Nov. 16	90	46	.51	.....	30	0.9	5.7	Tr.	.....	.0	20	.....	.6	2.0	62	2.8
Nov. 17	Nov. 29	140	100	.71	.....	32	.9	4.7	Tr.	.....	.0	16	.....	.3	7.5	82	3.9
Nov. 30	Dec. 11	135	88	.65	.....	30	.8	5.5	Tr.	.....	.0	20	.....	.5	7.0	78	2.8
Dec. 12	Dec. 21	140	102	.73	.....	26	.8	6.4	1.2	.....	.0	22	.....	.6	7.5	74	3.1
Dec. 27	Jan. 8	145	108	.75	.....	30	.40	5.2	Tr.	.....	.0	17	.....	.6	4.0	72	3.8
Jan. 9	Jan. 21	15	11	.73	.....	25	.20	7.4	1.6	.....	.0	27	.....	.4	1.7	63	2.8
Jan. 22	Feb. 3	25	16	.64	.....	18	.30	8.4	1.6	.....	.0	32	.....	.9	3.0	58	2.6
Feb. 6	Feb. 19	15	12	.80	.....	13	.20	9.2	1.6	.....	.0	32	.....	.4	4.5	58	2.7
Feb. 20	Mar. 15	40	34	.85	.....	14	.10	12	0.8	.....	.0	41	.....	.4	1.5	64	3.2
Mar. 16	Mar. 30	25	24	.96	.....	18	.10	10	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.7	3.5	59	2.8
Mar. 31	Apr. 15	20	18	.90	.....	26	.30	7.6	Tr.	.....	.0	24	.....	.4	2.0	45	3.1
Apr. 16	Apr. 25	120	110	.92	.....	15	.20	7.0	1.2	.....	.0	24	.....	.2	2.0	45	3.1
Apr. 26	May 1	160	168	1.05	.....	18	.40	5.5	1.2	.....	.0	20	.....	.3	3.0	40	3.4
May 2	May 11	100	74	.74	.....	20	[c]1.4	6.5	2.9	7.2	.0	44	4.0	.5	3.0	76	2.9
May 12	May 21	60	44	.73	.....	27	.40	6.7	3.3	7.8	.0	42	3.6	.2	3.5	78	2.5
May 22	June 3	255	211	.77	.....	21	.8	5.1	2.1	11	.0	39	3.6	.4	4.5	74	2.8
June 18	June 28	365	302	.83	.....	26	[c]2.8	4.1	3.7	7.2	.0	39	2.3	.5	3.0	86	3.0
June 29	July 10	375	238	.63	.....	37	Tr.	5.1	1.3	14	.0	48	4.4	1.4	1.4	91	3.2
Aug. 19	Aug. 31	270	128	.47	6.3	34	Tr.	5.8	0.8	13	.0	45	3.9	.9	1.6	86	2.4
Sept. 1	Sept. 13	240	115	.48	10	23	.03	6.8	1.7	9.4	.0	44	3.9	.5	1.1	64	2.3
Sept. 14	Sept. 28	295	199	.67	8.8	35	.03	4.9	1.3	5.4	.0	26	4.7	.7	.7	70	2.8
Oct. 2	Oct. 15	45	42	.93	2.4	26	Tr.	6.6	0.8	6.5	.0	29	3.9	.3	1.2	62	2.4
Oct. 16	Oct. 19	35	34	.97	.....	30	Tr.	9.3	1.7	7.2	.0	43	5.6	1.1	1.1	78	2.2
Mean		131	94	.76	.....	26	.31	6.9	1.3	8.9	.0	32	4.0	.6	3.1	69	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	....	....	38.8	[d].7	10.3	1.9	13.3	23.6	....	6.0	.8	4.6	....	....

[a] Analyses October 26, 1906, to May 1, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 2 to June 28, 1907, by W. D. Collins; June 29 to October 19, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Cheraw, S. C., 20 miles below.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Platte River near Columbus, Nebr.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 1	Oct. 11	20	21	1.05	31	Tr.	56	15	40	0.0	189	112	0.0	12	361	1.8
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	50	41	.82	33	0.10	55	16	40	.0	187	113	.7	11	353	2.2
Oct. 22	Nov. 2	350	311	.89	37	.20	44	.....	34	.0	167	74	.4	8.4	296	3.0
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	625	542	.87	47	.20	52	13	39	.0	181	86	1.8	9.6	349	3.5
Nov. 13	Nov. 22	300	244	.81	32	.20	66	17	50	.0	195	134	.4	13	412	3.2
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	210	178	.85	26	.20	64	17	.....	.0	187	167	Tr.	14	441	3.0
Dec. 3	Dec. 13	180	162	.90	36	.07	73	22	.....	.0	204	.....	.4	19	543	.....
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	50	48	.96	35	.05	77	25	77	.0	220	223	.9	19	561	.....
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	60	46	.77	27	.10	65	25	51	.0	190	181	.9	15	446	.....
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	20	27	1.35	26	.05	71	23	49	.0	207	206	.9	17	510	.....
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	15	.....	.....	32	Tr.	74	21	46	.0	152	191	.7	16	496	.....
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	20	8.0	.40	22	.08	74	23	55	.0	216	186	1.4	17	487	.....
Feb. 2	Feb. 12	15	10	.67	22	.10	73	20	56	.0	198	189	5.2	16	473	.....
Feb. 15	Feb. 24	215	110	.51	31	Tr.	46	15	.....	.0	148	101	2.3	8.5	309	.....
Feb. 25	Mar. 6	115	90	.78	30	Tr.	66	16	52	.0	192	.....	1.4	13	443	.....
Mar. 7	Mar. 16	580	432	.75	35	.9	72	20	52	.0	186	194	2.3	17	530	.....
Mar. 17	Mar. 26	325	264	.84	28	.25	68	23	39	.0	200	.....	2.0	20	522	.....
Mar. 27	Apr. 5	700	534	.76	33	.35	57	16	60	.0	184	172	1.2	16	454	3.2
Apr. 6	Apr. 15	2,000	1,432	.72	26	.35	56	13	47	.0	175	144	2.7	.....	385	3.0
Apr. 16	Apr. 26	800	638	.80	32	.20	63	18	46	.0	182	155	1.6	13	437	2.8
Apr. 27	May 6	900	774	.86	50	1.0	58	14	39	.0	161	130	1.1	10	407	3.2
May 7	May 15	580	385	.66	38	.6	55	16	41	.0	168	128	.9	11	389	2.9
Mean		374	300	.81	32	.20	63	18	48	.0	186	152	1.3	14	437	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	7.6	[b].1	15.0	4.3	11.4	21.8	.....	36.2	.3	3.3	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 1, 1906, to February 12, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 15 to 24, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 25 to March 6, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Fe_2O_3

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Mineral analyses of water from Platte River at Fremont, Nebr.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Oct. 10	Oct. 20	100	88	0.88	50	0.10	47	.....	36	0.0	199	37	0.0	4.9	265
Oct. 21	Oct. 31	290	537	1.85	44	.40	44	12	.....	.0	157	51	.9	4.5	246
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	540	632	1.17	49	.40	47	12	32	.0	161	71	1.3	7.3	303
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	400	335	.84	42	.40	54	14	41	.0	.....	97	.9	9.0	350
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	170	174	1.02	43	.16	53	19	.....	.0	184	86	.9	7.7	328
Dec. 1	Dec. 10	270	272	1.01	51	.20	52	14	34	.0	193	107	1.3	8.5	364
Dec. 11	Dec. 20	125	111	.89	46	Tr.	61	16	38	.0	218	111	.4	7.5	385
Dec. 21	Dec. 30	.....	193	.....	44	Tr.	60	14	33	.0	221	93	Tr.	8.1	352
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	80	52	.65	38	.15	53	15	34	.0	185	97	1.4	8.4	339
Jan. 10	Jan. 27	10	13	1.30	47	Tr.	62	13	40	.0	237	79	1.3	7.8	391
Jan. 28	Feb. 6	10	10	1.00	47	.15	57	15	34	.0	209	80	1.9	7.1	335
Mar. 13	Mar. 22	675	442	.65	40	.28	53	13	31	.0	199	82	Tr.	8.8	341
Mar. 24	Apr. 5	460	544	1.18	35	.32	57	16	32	.0	192	95	.6	7.1	387
Apr. 6	Apr. 17	1050	814	.77	44	.30	47	11	26	.0	176	75	.8	6.9	298
Apr. 18	Apr. 27	540	477	.88	49	.45	.....	13	33	.0	181	83	Tr.	10	347
Apr. 28	May 8	510	536	1.05	62	.6	45	11	37	.0	168	71	1.1	5.4	322
May 9	May 18	.....	.....	.....	50	.40	49	12	.....	.0	170	71	.7	5.7	308
May 19	May 29	485	649	1.34	50	.40	43	13	24	.0	168	57	2.3	4.8	280
May 30	June 8	700	980	1.40	44	.23	41	9.3	23	.0	160	51	2.4	6.7	256
June 9	June 18	600	804	1.34	41	.12	38	8.3	23	.0	160	50	3.0	4.0	251
June 20	June 29	625	514	.82	55	.8	40	11	27	.0	169	52	1.8	3.8	283
June 30	July 10	850	689	.81	.....	.10	41	5.9	29	.0	154	45	1.8	4.5	228
July 11	July 20	1,050	1,725	1.64	51	.8	38	4.4	25	.0	142	42	2.4	2.6	241
July 21	July 30	500	427	.85	32	.08	39	4.5	.....	.0	152	49	.9	.....	337
July 31	Aug. 10	375	343	.91	42	.20	41	8.7	34	.0	186	49	Tr.	6.5	260
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	450	332	.74	45	.15	44	10	27	.0	167	64	.9	5.7	274
Aug. 21	Aug. 31	95	100	1.05	49	.15	43	9.9	25	.0	166	51	Tr.	5.0	274
Sept. 1	Sept. 10	230	224	.97	44	.12	43	9.5	24	.0	165	46	1.8	4.8	253
Sept. 11	Sept. 21	90	93	1.03	63	.10	45	8.2	15	[b] 4.8	161	37	0.3	6.6	271
Sept. 22	Oct. 1	95	99	1.04	62	.10	40	4.2	20	[b] 4.8	155	24	0.3	3.0	243
Oct. 2	Oct. 11	200	168	.84	60	.66	41	8.6	31	[b] 6.0	162	41	1.0	6.0	270
Oct. 12	Oct. 23	75	76	1.01	45	.06	45	9.4	32	[b] 4.8	167	58	0.5	7.4	280
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	100	87	.87	51	.14	46	9.7	32	[b] 6.0	160	61	0.8	7.8	290
Mean		379	392	1.03	47	.26	47	11	30	.0	178	66	1.0	6.4	302
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	15.9	[c] .1	15.9	3.7	10.1	29.6	.....	22.3	.3	2.1	.....

[a] Analyses October 10, 1906, to February 6, 1907, by W. M. Barr; March 13, to September 10, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 11 to November 2, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Potomac River at Cumberland, Md.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 11	Sept. 20	10	13	1.30	1.4	9.0	Tr.	39	7.4	8.5	0.0	46	96	1.7	12	204	3.1
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	6	12	2.00	.1	12	Tr.	45	8.6	12	.0	51	117	.5	16	234	2.6
Oct. 1	Oct. 11	18	19	1.06	2.1	6.0	0.20	33	5.6	4.9	.0	51	59	.5	9.0	157	2.4
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	21	19	.90	1.7	8.0	.10	30	4.8	9.3	.0	43	62	.8	11	150	2.7
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	8	17	2.13	.9	6.4	.20	19	3.2	7.4	.0	37	34	.3	5.0	97	3.5
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	8	6.0	.75	1.2	7.4	.05	27	4.4	8.0	.0	45	53	.0	9.5	134	3.5
Nov. 12	Nov. 21	14	14	1.00	1.1	5.0	.14	29	4.6	8.5	.0	42	63	Tr.	9.8	144	3.6
Nov. 22	Dec. 2	8	7.8	.98	.9	7.0	.30	20	3.8	.....	.0	22	36	1.0	6.7	98	3.4
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	29	26	.90	1.6	10	.20	20	3.4	.....	.0	30	34	1.0	7.2	100	4.1
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	27	25	.93	1.7	13	.20	13	2.6	6.6	.0	39	24	.9	4.1	80	5.7
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	34	34	1.00	2.1	5.2	.16	17	3.8	4.9	.0	36	42	1.5	3.8	84	4.3
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	22	23	1.04	2.1	5.2	.20	15	3.4	4.4	.0	32	37	1.4	2.8	79	5.0
Jan. 12	Jan. 21	80	78	.97	6.6	5.8	.15	12	2.6	4.7	.0	19	26	2.0	3.8	63	7.4
Jan. 22	Jan. 31	28	20	.71	2.8	14	.06	23	5.8	19	[b]12	22	76	1.4	4.4	159	5.1
Feb. 1	Feb. 10	26	8.0	.32	1.9	14	.09	23	5.4	4.4	.0	25	64	1.8	3.4	128	3.7
Feb. 11	Feb. 20	26	9.4	.37	1.9	6.8	.08	23	5.2	4.3	.0	29	63	1.8	3.4	122	3.6
Feb. 21	Mar. 2	33	6.8	.21	1.6	5.8	.08	22	4.8	3.2	.0	28	55	1.2	3.8	111	3.9
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	37	12	.32	2.1	5.8	.10	17	3.2	3.3	.0	28	38	1.9	2.9	84	4.8
Mar. 13	Mar. 23	280	89	.32	9.1	16	.30	14	2.8	4.3	.0	20	39	2.0	1.4	89	8.0
Mar. 24	Apr. 4	21	29	1.38	1.9	4.8	.06	30	7.4	4.4	.0	11	97	1.4	3.8	155	5.0
Apr. 5	Apr. 14	7	11	1.57	3.2	7.2	.09	31	4.2	10	.0	22	93	0.9	5.3	168	4.0
Apr. 15	Apr. 24	35	46	1.32	4.4	6.2	.12	18	3.8	9.9	.0	23	45	1.0	4.8	100	3.9
Apr. 25	May 4	21	40	1.90	5.8	11	.15	17	3.0	8.0	.0	26	36	.9	3.4	90	4.0
May 5	May 14	13	26	2.00	2.6	16	.10	17	3.2	7.7	.0	30	39	.8	2.9	101	4.8
May 15	May 24	11	20	1.82	3.0	6.2	.12	20	4.0	17	.0	43	45	.7	8.2	118	4.4
May 25	June 3	21	30	1.43	2.5	6.6	.14	17	3.0	26	.0	53	40	.6	14	134	4.2
June 4	June 14	20	31	1.55	4.6	8.4	.14	17	3.0	7.4	.0	25	41	1.1	2.4	91	4.2
June 15	June 24	10	22	2.20	1.4	7.0	.10	20	4.4	7.9	.0	25	51	1.0	4.1	107	3.9
June 25	July 5	3	25	8.33	.3	7.0	.06	32	6.8	10	[b]7.2	28	82	Tr.	6.0	166	3.8
July 6	July 15	3	15	5.00	2.6	8.8	.08	38	.....	.....	[b]2.4	29	99	.6	6.2	186	3.9
July 16	July 25	35	42	1.20	7.9	5.0	.22	21	4.0	.....	[b]9.6	9.0	41	.0	3.8	98	3.8
July 27	Aug. 5	15	32	2.13	3.5	4.2	.06	24	4.6	5.7	[b]8.4	13	50	Tr.	5.4	113	3.2
Aug. 6	Aug. 15	25	39	1.56	9.6	6.8	.11	.....	.....	12	.0	41	54	.2	7.4	132	2.6
Aug. 16	Aug. 25	40	145	3.63	8.8	7.4	.06	41	7.8	14	.0	48	91	1.0	12	197	2.3
Aug. 26	Sept. 4	8	14	1.75	2.1	.....	.60	32	6.4	.....	.0	72	57	.6	8.4	194	2.3
Sept. 5	Sept. 14	18	22	1.22	1.8	12	.09	42	.....	20	.0	61	95	.4	13	215	2.5
Mean		28	29	1.59	3.0	8.2	.14	24	4.6	9.0	.0	36	58	.9	6.4	130	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	6.4	[c].2	18.6	3.5	7.0	13.7	....	45.0	.7	4.9	....	....

[a] Analyses September 11 to November 21, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 22, 1906, to April 4, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 5 to July 5, 1907, by Chase Palmer, and M. G. Roberts; July 6 to September 14, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Raritan River at Bound Brook, N. J.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 10	Sept. 19	9	8.6	0.96	0.1	22	Tr.	14	5.0	10	0.0	65	10	0.8	4.6	102	1.4
Sept. 20	Sept. 29	155	88	.57	2.0	15	0.5	13	4.6	9.9	.0	57	12	1.9	4.6	93	1.6
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	42	39	.93	4.3	14	.20	12	4.4	7.4	.0	59	12	1.8	4.2	92	1.8
Oct. 10	Oct. 19	8	10	1.25	.2	15	.10	14	4.8	7.9	.0	58	13	1.8	5.3	89	1.4
Oct. 20	Oct. 29	32	38	1.19	1.4	23	.20	13	5.2	9.5	.0	56	10	1.7	6.0	97	1.9
Oct. 30	Nov. 8	13	16	1.23	.6	18	.09	12	5.0	7.4	.0	57	10	1.6	5.3	98	1.6
Nov. 9	Nov. 18	9	4.4	.49	.5	14	.14	12	5.6	7.6	.0	59	12	.3	5.0	85	1.6
Nov. 19	Nov. 29	12	19	1.58	.15	12	.08	11	5.2	7.9	.0	52	14	.6	4.9	80	2.0
Nov. 30	Dec. 9	6	6.6	1.10	.2	18	.09	13	5.4	7.6	.0	62	9.9	2.0	4.7	93	1.4
Dec. 10	Dec. 19	26	33	1.27	.9	20	.16	12	4.8	6.6	.0	50	13	1.9	4.6	88	2.1
Dec. 21	Dec. 30	28	41	1.47	1.0	14	.18	10	4.4	6.1	.0	39	11	3.0	4.6	79	2.0
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	37	45	1.22	1.4	14	.30	9.6	4.2	.....	.0	....	12	2.1	4.6	73	2.8
Jan. 10	Jan. 19	47	71	1.51	1.6	11	.17	9.2	2.8	.....	.0	34	13	.....	5.3	69	3.1
Jan. 30	Feb. 9	5	0.8	.16	.4	17	.10	9.6	3.8	7.2	.0	45	10	3.8	4.8	75	1.8
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	4	Tr.	.....	.2	19	.08	11	5.2	9.4	.0	52	8.6	4.0	5.9	83	1.6
Feb. 20	Mar. 2	5	Tr.	.....	.2	22	.09	12	5.0	7.7	.0	52	11	2.4	5.3	89	1.4
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	11	13	1.18	.8	22	.10	10	4.8	9.0	.0	45	13	3.0	4.8	82	2.1
Mar. 13	Mar. 22	80	118	1.48	3.3	21	.20	7.2	2.6	6.0	.0	30	11	2.1	4.1	69	4.9
Mar. 23	Apr. 1	7	9.2	1.30	.4	12	.09	8.2	4.0	6.3	.0	38	10	2.8	3.8	64	2.2
Apr. 2	Apr. 11	10	15	1.50	.4	17	.09	11	2.4	11	.0	43	11	3.0	3.7	76	1.9
Apr. 12	Apr. 21	5	4.2	.84	.2	20	.11	10	3.0	12	.0	44	11	2.9	3.8	81	1.8
Apr. 22	May 2	40	29	.72	.8	17	.21	10	3.4	9.8	.0	45	11	2.8	3.8	81	1.8
May 3	May 12	20	27	1.35	.7	26	.18	10	3.6	9.0	.0	44	12	2.7	3.6	90	2.2
May 13	May 22	45	52	1.16	1.6	24	.13	11	3.8	.....	.0	46	11	2.7	3.5	86	2.2
May 23	June 2	8	15	1.88	.3	11	.06	11	3.6	7.6	.0	52	8.9	2.3	3.6	74	1.8
June 3	June 12	18	17	.94	.6	8.2	.08	9.6	3.0	11	.0	47	10	2.3	3.8	67	1.7
June 13	June 21	5	8.4	1.68	.2	10	.08	13	4.4	8.4	.0	59	10	2.2	4.2	81	1.3
June 23	July 2	18	22	1.22	.3	8.0	.03	13	5.2	11	.0	67	11	1.7	4.6	88	1.3
July 3	July 12	130	133	1.02	4.7	20	.11	17	2.4	12	.0	57	14	.7	4.6	96	1.3
July 13	July 23	272	202	.74	7.0	9.6	.18	14	3.8	11	.0	50	15	.7	4.8	81	1.4
July 24	Aug 2	25	30	1.20	1.4	13	.05	17	1.8	12	.0	56	17	.4	5.4	92	1.1
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	8	15	1.88	.8	10	.05	18	.....	.....	.0	43	18	.3	4.8	88	1.1
Aug. 13	Aug. 23	7	13	1.86	.6	8.4	.07	18	.....	.....	.0	66	18	.4	5.8	93	1.0
Aug. 24	Sept. 3	45	29	.63	1.2	15	.16	17	1.2	12	.0	62	16	.9	5.4	97	1.4
Sept. 5	Sept. 12	120	79	.66	2.6	19	.7	16	1.6	14	.0	56	18	1.0	5.4	104	1.5
Mean		37	36	1.16	1.2	16	.15	12	3.9	9.1	.0	51	12	1.9	4.7	85	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	18.8	[b] .3	14.1	4.6	10.7	29.6	....	14.1	2.3	5.5	....	....

[a] Analyses September 9 to October 29, 1906, and from November 9 to November 29, 1906, by R. B. Dole; October 30 to November 8, 1906, and from November 30, 1906, to April 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 2 to July 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 3 to September 12, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Red River near Shreveport, La.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1907-8). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Mar. 19	Mar. 28	820	780	0.95	.....	40	3.6	57	11	....	0.0	98	99	1.0	42	350	10.8
Mar. 29	Apr. 7	1,050	910	.87	.....	34	3.2	38	19	....	.0	122	67	.1	45	324	6.0
Apr. 8	Apr. 17	600	555	.92	.....	31	1.2	45	.....	48	.0	134	62	.5	58	348	6.0
Apr. 18	Apr. 28	750	.....	.....	.....	28	3.4	38	.....	.....	.0	117	76	.4	42	318	3.9
Apr. 29	May 8	900	784	.87	.....	25	3.0	39	.....	27	.0	119	71	.5	40	298	10.6
May 9	May 18	1,100	1,284	1.16	40	55	1.9	35	6.7	21	7.2	117	24	1.2	13	257	17.0
May 23	June 3	880	960	1.09	27	36	.88	36	5.8	30	2.4	110	39	1.0	26	236	18.0
June 4	June 13	1,160	1,589	1.37	38	57	.82	45	6.4	38	14	122	44	1.2	34	311	23.8
June 14	June 23	800	582	.73	22	28	.19	47	7.7	38	Tr.	130	52	.5	41	286	24.7
June 24	July 4	1,400	1,314	.94	35	25	.14	73	13	74	.0	150	128	.4	103	491	14.8
July 5	July 16	1,500	1,800	1.20	42	38	.56	78	15	74	9.6	74	165	Tr.	117	584	11.1
July 17	July 27	1,600	1,850	1.15	40	38	1.8	57	10	42	4.8	102	88	.5	76	377	10.8
July 28	Aug. 7	1,100	1,750	1.59	25	47	.52	91	19	90	8.4	165	162	.3	110	636	4.0
Aug. 8	Aug. 17	290	300	1.04	5.3	30	.22	120	28	101	14	176	240	.2	132	797	2.6
Aug. 19	Aug. 28	300	420	1.40	13	26	.58	122	30	125	6.0	190	247	.3	188	877	1.2
Aug. 29	Sept. 8	170	184	1.08	2.9	39	.24	152	39	172	8.4	278	300	Tr.	252	1,131	.2
Sept. 9	Sept. 18	125	134	1.07	2.7	40	.14	140	39	148	.0	305	271	.2	216	1,035	−.5
Sept. 19	Sept. 28	40	80	2.00	1.3	33	Tr.	221	55	436	.0	232	561	Tr.	700	2,198	−1.2
Sept. 30	Oct. 10	350	438	1.25	13	24	.10	154	47	230	Tr.	288	320	.3	339	1,311	−.4
Oct. 11	Oct. 22	2,800	3,925	1.40	160	9.2	.5	97	22	134	4.8	80	217	Tr.	205	761	6.3
Oct. 23	Nov. 2	1,600	1,200	.75	49	20	.14	135	32	194	Tr.	156	320	.5	292	1,087	1.0
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	300	254	.85	12	20	Tr.	125	26	131	12	212	228	.2	188	851	.2
Nov. 13	Nov. 23	1,600	1,550	.97	100	23	.15	126	30	197	7.2	152	282	.5	292	1,057	1.3
Nov. 25	Dec. 4	425	508	1.19	27	13	.52	42	8.3	40	12	85	62	Tr.	55	276	6.8
Dec. 5	Dec. 15	325	263	.81	15	18	.52	50	12	52	19	51	86	Tr.	71	346	4.9
Dec. 16	Dec. 25	400	447	1.12	13	20	.52	49	13	58	Tr.	111	86	.2	78	357	6.8
Dec. 26	Jan. 4	1,300	1,400	1.08	50	35	3.5	38	4.4	25	Tr.	112	38	.8	24	240	12.6
Jan. 5	Jan. 15	425	616	1.45	21	25	1.2	42	6.3	47	.0	93	71	.5	65	315	10.8
Jan. 16	Jan. 25	300	377	1.26	8.4	35	1.3	31	4.3	36	4.8	83	41	.0	42	248	9.6
Jan. 26	Feb. 4	200	194	.97	8.9	20	.47	46	5.6	53	Tr.	88	82	.4	82	350	6.0
Feb. 5	Feb. 15	240	279	1.16	8.2	15	.6	39	6.5	43	14	61	64	Tr.	55	273	7.6
Feb. 16	Feb. 29	960	1,065	1.11	12	38	2.8	34	4.9	25	7.2	93	39	.5	24	234	13.0
Mar. 1	Mar. 10	240	260	1.08	7.7	28	1.5	34	5.6	31	.0	95	52	.3	35	237	9.9
Mar. 11	Mar. 19	800	660	.82	16	33	2.4	37	5.9	32	Tr.	98	59	.2	38	277	8.9
Mean		790	870	1.11	.....	30	1.1	74	17	90	4.6	135	140	.4	121	561	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	5.5	[b].3	13.6	3.1	16.5	13.1	.....	25.7	.0	22.2	.....	.....

[a] Analyses March 19 to May 8, 1907, by James R. Evans; May 9 to March 19, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Rio Grande River at Laredo, Tex.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1905-6). From—	To—	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Oxides of iron and aluminum ($Fe_2O_3+Al_2O_3$).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium (Na).	Potassium (K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Aug. 1	Aug. 10	4,210	35	5.0	137	18	104	9.5	0.0	164	446	128	772	6.7
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	3,750	40	3.4	204	25	102	9.9	.0	159	267	143	1,090	7.1
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	3,196	33	3.0	117	14	118	7.2	.0	166	202	111	664	5.7
Aug. 31	Sept. 9	892	32	3.8	98	20	96	5.2	.0	178	185	144	676	4.8
Sept. 10	Sept. 20	4,964	31	2.4	104	19	65	4.9	.0	185	202	152	746	6.5
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	3,064	33	2.2	87	14	64	3.6	.0	165	164	77	540	6.6
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	2,872	33	2.6	67	10	51	5.2	.0	161	88	71	436	6.9
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	2,056	39	3.0	97	17	.....	6.5	.0	178	138	134	600	5.3
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	722	36	4.6	98	20	104	9.6	.0	195	192	134	684	4.2
Oct. 31	Nov. 9	354	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	836	3.8
Nov. 10	Nov. 19	762	22	2.4	110	25	.....	.....	.0	190	233	203	864	4.6
Nov. 20	Nov. 29	1,222	27	3.2	76	15	.....	.....	.0	153	155	139	612	5.2
Nov. 30	Dec. 9	470	27	2.6	108	26	122	4.9	.0	176	252	182	904	4.9
Dec. 11	Dec. 19	1,772	28	2.0	107	23	98	12	.0	165	243	144	812	4.7
Dec. 20	Dec. 29	2,246	23	2.6	87	18	72	4.7	.0	.....	191	113	612	5.4
Dec. 30	Jan. 8	696	24	3.2	92	20	97	4.5	.0	.....	192	149	720	4.6
Jan. 9	Jan. 18	396	26	4.4	112	31	122	5.9	.0	212	268	201	956	4.0
Jan. 19	Jan. 28	212	30	3.6	149	35	153	6.0	.0	245	298	240	1,080	3.6
Jan. 29	Feb. 7	128	29	4.0	142	35	142	3.7	.0	185	330	241	1,112	3.5
Feb. 8	Feb. 17	358	17	4.6	130	34	118	3.1	.0	188	322	241	1,072	4.2
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	754	23	2.6	82	19	141	11	.0	126	192	82	668	5.1
Feb. 28	Mar. 9	562	25	1.0	83	22	103	5.4	.0	160	193	120	690	4.4
Mar. 10	Mar. 19	408	34	1.8	104	29	143	3.9	.0	.....	254	.....	916	3.6
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	270	33	4.0	112	34	147	.....	[b]6.3	175	294	227	1,004	3.1
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	208	25	4.0	105	28	145	.....	.0	169	297	265	1,054	2.9
Apr. 9	Apr. 18	396	35	4.0	107	38	190	.....	.0	166	319	304	1,040	3.2
Apr. 19	Apr. 28	406	27	3.4	103	36	162	.....	.0	159	310	292	1,072	3.0
Apr. 29	May 8	1,828	26	10.2	131	38	205	8.9	.0	255	309	346	1,304	4.3
May 9	May 18	5,826	31	6.2	151	31	131	5.9	.0	225	368	275	1,094	4.9
May 19	May 28	5,320	22	5.8	83	27	81	5.1	.0	204	168	121	580	5.0
May 29	June 7	3,446	35	3.2	85	20	89	4.4	.0	170	210	154	752	5.4
June 8	June 17	6,428	29	7.0	89	25	86	5.7	.0	172	193	115	654	4.6
June 18	June 2	5,310	26	3.4	97	20	137	10	.0	172	236	166	782	4.2
June 28	July 7	7,726	19	1.6	64	18	78	8.8	.0	157	146	105	524	4.8
July 8	July 17	6,734	21	2.4	68	12	65	6.8	.0	171	112	103	480	7.3
July 18	July 27	6,382	35	2.4	72	11	82	7.4	[b]13	150	116	74	466	8.4
July 28	Aug. 2	5,226	32	2.2	69	10	72	6.3	[b]6.3	147	118	50	410	9.5
Mean		2,475	29	3.6	104	23	112	6.6	.0	178	228	164	791	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	3.8	.5	13.7	3.0	14.8	.9	11.6	.....	30.1	21.6	.....	.....

[a] Analyses by W. H. Heileman.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

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Mineral analyses of water from Roanoke River at Randolph, Va.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	500	40	0.08	14	25	2.5	10	4.4	6.5	0.0	57	3.6	0.5	2.4	102
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	300	56	.19	14	24	1.5	8.8	2.8	6.9	.0	55	3.8	.3	2.6	90
Sept. 27	Oct. 4	270	328	1.22	15	16	1.2	9.0	3.2	6.3	.0	48	4.0	Tr.	1.9	74
Oct. 10	Oct. 25	290	282	.97	14	23	2.1	8.4	2.6	.....	.0	45	3.0	.7	1.9	84
Oct. 26	Nov. 5	38	38	1.00	2.6	19	.4	11	4.4	6.6	.0	59	4.3	.5	2.2	76
Nov. 6	Nov. 17	21	21	1.00	1.2	22	.3	11	4.4	7.4	.0	61	4.9	.6	2.5	80
Nov. 18	Nov. 27	350	272	.78	15	23	1.3	8.8	3.8	7.2	.0	50	5.7	.9	1.9	82
Dec. 1	Dec. 15	17	19	1.12	1.4	29	.4	11	4.6	2.8	.0	61	4.4	.5	2.9	87
Dec. 16	Dec. 27	....	156	.....	7.7	20	1.0	9.2	3.8	3.9	.0	50	4.3	.4	2.6	75
Dec. 28	Jan. 6	....	139	.....	7.3	19	1.6	8.8	3.6	5.4	.0	56	4.1	.9	2.3	72
Jan. 7	Jan. 16	26	39	1.50	1.9	23	.6	9.4	3.8	2.5	.0	52	4.6	.6	2.4	69
Jan. 17	Jan. 26	23	23	1.00	2.1	25	.6	10	4.0	4.5	.0	54	4.6	.4	2.9	81
Jan. 27	Feb. 5	26	24	.92	2.3	18	.5	9.6	3.6	3.2	.0	51	4.1	.3	2.6	68
Feb. 6	Mar. 2	60	63	1.05	3.9	13	.5	9.4	2.8	4.4	.0	46	4.8	.3	2.2	62
Mar. 3	Mar. 12	....	192	.....	7.7	25	1.0	8.8	3.2	7.2	.0	44	4.8	1.0	1.3	87
Mar. 13	Mar. 25	29	63	2.17	1.6	17	.19	8.4	2.6	7.1	[b] 8.2	34	4.3	.0	1.7	65
Mar. 26	Apr. 4	65	77	1.18	2.1	13	.32	9.8	3.0	7.6	.0	51	4.8	.2	2.0	64
Apr. 5	Apr. 14	171	139	.81	6.5	24	1.0	9.6	3.2	7.6	.0	50	4.9	1.0	1.4	83
Apr. 19	Apr. 29	290	238	.82	18	28	1.0	10	3.4	7.2	.0	55	5.1	1.0	2.2	91
Apr. 30	May 12	400	327	.82	16	22	1.0	9.6	3.2	8.5	.0	58	4.1	.5	2.6	85
Mean		169	127	.....	7.7	21	.95	9.5	3.5	5.9	.0	53	4.4	.5	2.2	79
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	.....	.....	28.2	[c] 1.8	12.8	4.7	7.9	35.1	.....	5.9	.7	3.0	.....

[a] Analyses September 7 to November 27, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 1, 1906, to April 4, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 5 to May 12, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

8464—IRR 236—09——7

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Mineral analyses of water from St. Lawrence River at Ogdensburg, N. Y.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7).	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 18	2	....	9.6	0.06	32	6.9	6.2	4.2	114	12	Tr.	7.7	135	244.93
Oct. 18	1	....	8.2	.03	32	6.5	6.7	3.7	115	12	Tr.	7.2	134	244.68
Nov. 18	5	....	3.7	.05	31	7.3	6.1	4.2	114	12	0.6	7.6	128	244.62
Dec. 24	2	....	6.6	.04	32	7.1	5.7	Tr.	123	13	.45	7.6	133	244.64
Jan. 18	3	....	6.6	.04	31	7.4	6.9	3.6	117	13	.25	7.8	135	245.20
Mar. 18	18	....	5.0	.05	31	7.3	5.4	Tr.	120	13	.25	7.7	128	245.42
Apr. 23	4	....	7.7	.05	30	7.7	7.3	2.5	116	12	.15	7.3	141	245.32
May 22	1	....	7.1	.06	30	7.6	6.8	4.0	113	12	.15	7.2	143	245.74
June 18	....	....	3.9	.05	32	6.9	6.1	0.0	118	12	.8	7.9	130	246.05
July 20	....	....	5.2	.03	32	7.4	5.8	4.4	112	14	.6	8.6	133	246.12
Aug. 18	....	....	9.4	.04	32	7.3	6.1	4.8	111	12	.4	8.3	137	245.90
Mean	4.5	Tr.	6.6	.05	31	7.2	6.3	2.9	116	12	0.3	7.7	134	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue	....	....	5.0	[b].1	23.6	5.5	4.8	45.7	.....	9.2	0.2	5.9	....	.....

[a] Analyses by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Fe_2O_3.

Mineral analyses of water from Saluda River near Columbia, S. C.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).[b]	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).[c]	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[d]
Oct. 27	Nov. 5	70	35	0.50	23	1.0	6.3	0.8	.....	0.0	27	.....	0.3	4.0	63	1.4
Nov. 6	Nov. 16	95	30	.32	26	.8	4.2	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.5	4.0	55	1.5
Nov. 17	Nov. 28	40	21	.52	23	.6	9.1	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	1.0	68	1.7
Nov. 29	Dec. 8	35	18	.51	20	.30	10	1.6	.....	.0	39	.....	.7	2.0	70	4.2
Dec. 9	Dec. 19	85	60	.71	20	.5	3.9	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.8	2.2	48	5.2
Jan. 4	Jan. 15	25	17	.68	32	.20	11	2.0	.....	.0	44	.....	.5	2.5	80	5.6
Jan. 16	Jan. 25	45	34	.76	19	.40	12	2.4	.....	.0	44	.....	.5	2.5	66	3.6
Jan. 26	Feb. 4	60	46	.77	17	.20	8.4	1.2	.....	.0	29	.....	.3	5.0	60	3.8
Feb. 5	Feb. 14	70	55	.78	27	.30	7.2	.8	.....	.0	24	.....	.3	4.0	67	4.5
Feb. 15	Feb. 24	55	33	.60	15	.20	9.6	Tr.	.....	.0	29	.....	.1	3.5	50	3.2
Feb. 25	Mar. 14	65	48	.74	18	.20	10	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	4.5	62	3.6
Mar. 15	Mar. 24	45	40	.89	21	.10	9.6	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.4	3.0	64	2.1
Mar. 25	Apr. 3	18	17	.94	19	.10	10	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.4	4.5	60	2.0
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	15	12	.80	20	.....	10	1.6	.....	.0	34	.....	.4	5.0	71	2.7
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	250	230	.92	20	.5	7.5	2.8	.....	.0	32	.....	.3	4.5	57	2.6
Apr. 24	May 3	185	166	.90	22	.30	6.0	2.4	.....	.0	24	.....	.4	4.0	55	5.2
Mean		72	54	.71	21	.38	8.4	1.3	[b]6.0	.0	33	[c]5.0	.43	3.5	62	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue[e]		....	.....	.....	33.6	[f].9	13.5	2.1	9.6	26.0	.....	8.0	.7	5.6	....	....

[a] Analyses by J. R. Evans.
[b] Fluctuates between 1 and 10 parts; average value about 6 parts.
[c] Fluctuates between trace and 10 parts; average value about 5 parts.
[d] Gaging station at Chappells, S. C., 50 miles above.
[e] Approximate.
[f] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Savannah River near Augusta, Ga.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 25	Nov. 3	45	33	0.73	.....	21	.....	5.4	1.2	.....	0.0	27	.....	0.1	3.0	56	9.6
Nov. 4	Nov. 13	40	17	.42	.....	28	0.20	6.2	Tr.	.....	.0	24	.....	.6	3.0	77	9.0
Nov. 14	Nov. 23	35	12	.34	.....	32	.30	4.4	Tr.	.....	.0	17	.....	.7	1.5	59	10.4
Nov. 24	Dec. 3	40	17	.42	.....	32	.20	4.9	Tr.	.....	.0	20	.....	.8	1.5	64	9.2
Dec. 4	Dec. 13	55	20	.36	.....	34	.30	6.4	3.2	.....	.0	22	.....	.6	1.8	74	9.6
Dec. 14	Dec. 23	65	22	.34	.....	31	.30	6.2	2.8	.....	.0	22	.....	.5	2.0	72	10.8
Dec. 24	Jan. 2	85	55	.65	.....	36	.40	3.9	Tr.	.....	.0	15	.....	.3	3.0	78	11.0
Jan. 3	Jan. 12	60	46	.77	.....	24	.7	3.9	1.6	.....	.0	17	.....	.8	2.5	54	11.2
Jan. 13	Jan. 22	16	10	.62	.....	17	.40	6.0	4.8	.....	.0	27	.....	.8	3.0	60	9.3
Jan. 23	Feb. 2	60	41	.68	.....	30	.40	8.2	2.8	.....	.0	34	.....	.4	3.5	70	9.3
Feb. 3	Feb. 12	150	127	.85	.....	23	.7	5.4	.8	.....	.0	20	.....	.9	3.0	53	14.2
Feb. 13	Feb. 22	20	17	.85	.....	13	1.2	7.6	1.2	.....	.0	24	.....	.6	3.0	52	9.2
Mar. 13	Mar. 22	22	15	.68	.....	12	.9	5.6	Tr.	.....	.0	20	.....	.6	2.8	42	9.4
Mar. 23	Apr. 1	15	14	.93	.....	20	.9	8.4	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.5	3.0	55	8.4
Apr. 2	Apr. 11	45	42	.93	.....	23	1.2	8.4	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.3	2.5	59	8.5
Apr. 12	Apr. 21	210	205	.98	.....	26	1.4	7.6	Tr.	.....	.0	24	.....	.3	1.5	52	8.4
Apr. 22	May 1	340	316	.93	.....	20	1.6	5.5	Tr.	.....	.0	19	.....	.4	3.0	42	11.6
May 2	May 11	265	248	.94	.....	17	1.8	7.2	1.6	.....	.0	24	.....	.2	3.0	45	9.5
May 12	May 22	45	38	.84	3.2	37	.22	5.9	.4	13	.0	50	5.5	.8	1.7	90	8.3
May 23	June 1	130	142	1.09	5.2	31	.20	5.2	.4	13	[b]9.6	27	5.7	.7	1.8	78	8.3
June 2	June 11	175	259	1.65	14	21	.54	4.9	.4	11	[b]7.2	17	6.1	.7	1.4	61	9.8
June 12	June 21	300	231	.77	9.6	17	.08	5.1	.2	12	[b]Tr.	35	5.6	1.1	1.4	51	8.2
June 22	July 3	425	338	.79	14	15	.06	5.1	.4	11	[b]Tr.	37	5.8	1.6	1.6	54	8.8
July 4	July 13	315	255	.81	9.4	25	.20	5.0	.7	12	[b]7.2	24	5.5	.2	1.4	67	7.7
July 14	July 23	425	446	1.05	18	30	.26	5.0	.....	12	[b]14	9.8	7.3	.9	1.2	76	8.4
July 24	Aug. 3	400	419	1.05	14	14	.04	4.7	.4	13	[b]9.6	22	7.4	.0	Tr.	53	7.6
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	575	424	.74	46	15	Tr.	5.1	.6	11	.0	32	6.8	3.0	1.8	53	7.4
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	475	318	.67	28	16	.04	5.1	.5	10	[b]3.6	30	6.7	.3	1.7	56	9.5
Aug. 24	Sept. 2	160	75	.47	7.9	22	Tr.	5.0	.5	13	.0	40	6.0	1.0	2.0	63	6.5
Sept. 3	Sept. 12	270	159	.59	11	18	.04	5.0	.4	11	.0	34	5.3	1.0	2.2	58	6.8
Sept. 13	Sept. 22	200	72	.36	9.3	19	.00	6.0	.5	12	.0	40	5.8	.7	2.2	64	6.1
Sept. 23	Oct. 2	300	299	1.00	21	14	.04	6.0	.3	9.2	.0	33	4.9	.0	1.6	49	10.9
Oct. 3	Oct. 12	65	59	.91	5.6	16	Tr.	4.6	.4	9.6	.0	32	4.7	.7	1.9	53	6.3
Oct. 13	Oct. 22	25	25	1.00	2.4	21	.00	5.3	.5	11	[b]2.4	32	6.0	.0	1.8	61	5.3
Mean		172	142	.77	.....	23	.44	5.7	.8	12	.0	30	6.0	.6	2.1	60	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	35.0	[c].9	8.7	1.2	18.3	22.6	.....	9.1	1.0	3.2	.....	.....

[a] Analyses October 25, 1906, to May 11, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 12 to October 22, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.
[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Shenandoah River at Millville, W. Va.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 12	Sept. 21	17	18	1.06	0.3	16	Tr.	35	11	5.0	0.0	156	3.6	2.1	2.6	149	1.4
Sept. 22	Oct. 1	12	11	.92	.2	12	0.10	35	12	6.2	.0	160	3.4	2.0	3.2	150	1.3
Oct. 2	Oct. 11	42	30	.71	.8	19	.05	33	9.4	5.8	.0	142	5.1	2.6	3.0	146	2.2
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	80	69	.86	2.1	20	.20	28	8.0	6.0	.0	118	6.1	2.1	2.4	131	3.9
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	90	108	1.20	2.6	20	.20	28	7.4	5.8	.0	116	4.6	3.4	2.4	131	4.6
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	9	7	.78	Tr.	19	Tr.	38	6.8	5.7	Tr.	163	6.1	3.0	2.4	162	2.2
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	9	10	1.11	.1	16	.05	42	7.6	4.9	6.0	161	5.8	3.0	2.4	172	1.8
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	37	32	.86	1.4	14	.20	29	7.2	5.2	Tr.	122	6.5	3.0	2.6	126	2.9
Dec. 1	Dec. 10	7	5.0	.71	.1	16	.05	37	9.8	5.5	6.0	147	7.1	3.2	2.6	155	1.7
Dec. 11	Dec. 20	25	27	1.08	.3	19	.06	36	11	5.7	.0	155	5.9	3.2	2.6	157	2.4
Dec. 21	Dec. 30	27	21	.78	.5	13	.16	30	8.0	3.2	Tr.	120	5.4	3.5	2.2	124	2.7
Dec. 31	Jan. 10	28	23	.82	1.0	12	.14	30	7.4	4.3	.0	120	5.9	3.0	2.6	126	2.9
Jan. 11	Jan. 20	27	26	.96	.9	14	.10	32	7.6	4.1	.0	129	6.6	3.0	2.8	136	3.1
Jan. 21	Jan. 30	28	31	1.11	1.1	11	.12	31	7.0	3.3	.0	120	4.8	3.0	2.4	123	3.2
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	10	11	1.10	.4	10	.08	.....	10	4.1	.0	144	5.8	3.2	3.0	151	2.2
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	9	12	1.33	.5	14	.06	36	9.4	4.9	5.8	137	8.1	3.6	3.4	148	2.5
Feb. 20	Feb. 28	11	11	1.00	.4	17	.07	36	9.0	5.4	.0	145	7.1	4.2	3.0	150	2.2
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	....	203	.....	3.7	16	.13	34	8.4	4.9	.0	142	6.9	4.3	2.9	146	2.5
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	75	71	.95	1.5	10	.16	31	7.4	4.7	.0	127	5.3	4.1	2.9	126	3.3
Mar. 22	Mar. 31	19	16	.84	.5	16	.05	30	7.8	4.7	2.4	122	6.1	3.7	2.3	132	2.4
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	11	11	1.00	1.1	20	.07	35	9.6	9.1	.0	.....	6.6	3.7	2.2	154	....
Apr. 11	Apr. 20	75	78	1.04	2.1	26	.13	28	6.4	5.8	4.8	107	5.9	3.4	3.8	138	....
Apr. 21	Apr. 30	4	8.0	2.00	.2	20	.07	31	7.6	6.0	4.8	110	5.6	2.0	4.2	138	....
May 1	May 11	5	10	2.00	.3	18	.06	32	8.0	6.9	3.6	116	5.9	2.6	3.8	137	....
May 12	May 21	3	8.5	2.83	.3	16	.05	28	7.8	8.5	.0	122	6.1	1.7	3.0	134	....
May 22	May 31	9	13	1.44	.4	12	.06	31	7.6	.....	.0	123	4.9	2.3	3.0	134	....
June 1	June 10	150	161	1.08	4.0	14	.06	24	5.4	6.3	.0	102	5.8	2.0	3.0	112	....
June 11	June 20	85	115	1.35	1.9	11	.08	14	5.4	5.4	.0	71	5.3	Tr.	1.8	78	....
June 21	June 30	2	19	9.50	.3	14	.08	32	9.2	6.6	2.4	127	4.9	1.8	3.6	139	....
July 1	July 10	15	64	4.26	.5	14	.05	26	5.6	13	4.8	108	7.9	1.3	2.6	122	1.8
July 11	July 20	7	24	3.43	.2	11	.04	36	.....	11	4.8	142	8.1	1.5	3.0	149	1.5
July 21	July 31	5	16	3.20	.2	11	.03	37	9.8	12	.0	159	8.7	2.0	4.2	158	1.4
Aug. 1	Aug. 10	38	35	.92	.6	8.6	.03	35	.....	8.8	.0	149	8.4	1.0	3.8	145	1.1
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	4	14	3.50	.3	8.6	.03	37	.....	9.0	.0	152	8.1	2.1	3.4	152	1.3
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	20	18	.90	.4	13	.05	38	7.8	12	2.4	149	7.9	2.4	3.8	158	1.4
Aug. 31	Sept. 9	80	58	.72	1.6	15	.06	37	7.4	13	.0	149	7.9	2.1	6.6	160	1.3
Mean		31	39	1.64	.9	15	.08	32	8.2	6.7	1.3	132	6.2	2.6	3.0	140	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	10.7	[b] .1	22.8	5.9	4.8	47.3	.....	4.4	1.9	2.1	.....	....

[a] Analyses September 12 to December 10, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 11, 1906, to March 31, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 1 to June 30, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 1 to September 9, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O

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Mineral analyses of water from Lake Superior at Sault Ste. Marie, Mich.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906–7).	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
ct. 22	2	....	11	0.09	13	3.2	3.9	0.0	59	4.1	0.25	1.0	63	602.95
t. 22	1	....	8.7	.03	13	3.1	3.5	.0	56	3.8	.25	1.2	61	602.84
v. 22	2	....	5.9	.04	13	2.9	2.0	.0	54	1.8	.45	1.4	54	602.66
c. 20	Tr.	....	7.2	.08	13	2.9	3.6	.0	55	1.8	.30	1.3	58	602.45
n. 22	Tr.	....	4.7	.03	13	2.9	2.0	.0	55	1.6	.45	1.2	53	602.22
r. 22	3	....	12	.04	13	3.2	5.1	.0	55	1.7	.35	1.1	68	602.06
r. 20	1	....	12	.11	13	3.1	3.5	.0	56	1.5	.30	1.0	64	601.94
y 23	3	....	4.8	.09	13	3.0	3.0	.0	52	1.5	.55	1.0	57	602.10
ne 22	3	....	4.6	.04	14	3.2	3.3	.0	59	1.7	1.2	1.2	59	602.55
ly 22	2	....	5.7	.05	12	3.0	2.8	.0	58	1.5	1.2	1.0	55	602.70
ig. 22	5	....	5.3	.05	13	3.1	2.9	.0	60	1.6	.50	1.1	66	602.93
Mean	2	Tr.	7.4	.06	13	3.1	3.2	.0	56	2.1	.5	1.1	60	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue	....	....	12.7	c.2	22.4	5.3	5.5	47.5	....	3.6	.9	1.9	....	.....

[a] Analyses by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts.
[b] Gaging station at Marquette, Mich., 160 miles west.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Susquehanna River at West Pittston, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 28	Nov. 7	5	3.8	0.76	0.3	12	0.04	15	2.4	4.1	0.0	61	8.2	0.3	3.1	79	5.11
Nov. 8	Nov. 16	3	0.6	.20	1.0	10	.03	16	3.0	4.7	.0	62	8.1	.4	3.0	77	4.24
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	8	8.2	1.02	.4	8.4	.03	15	2.8	4.4	.0	56	8.5	1.0	2.0	72	5.33
Dec. 8	Dec. 17	37	41	1.11	1.4	10	.13	16	2.0	6.5	.0	58	12	3.0	4.1	79	8.11
Dec. 19	Dec. 28	12	18	1.50	.9	8.4	.14	16	1.6	6.5	.0	58	11	2.0	4.1	76	6.80
Dec. 29	Jan. 7	150	145	.97	5.1	10	.21	12	1.4	6.6	.0	47	10	3.0	3.6	68	11.50
Jan. 8	Jan. 18	27	42	1.55	1.5	10	.19	13	1.6	5.0	.0	38	15	3.6	3.6	70	10.10
Jan. 19	Jan. 29	21	34	1.62	1.5	8.0	.16	14	1.6	5.5	.0	46	13	3.0	3.4	69	10.10
Jan. 30	Feb. 10	2	4.6	2.30	.6	8.8	.14	19	2.4	5.4	.0	54	18	6.0	4.6	89	8.20
Feb. 11	Feb. 20	2	2.8	1.40	.3	16	.10	20	2.6	6.6	.0	72	13	4.0	4.6	95	5.60
Feb. 21	Mar. 3	2	5.8	2.90	.4	8.2	.12	22	3.2	7.4	[c]2.9	81	12	2.2	5.0	100	4.10
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	2	4.2	2.10	.7	9.0	.10	.....	3.2	.....	.0	83	12	3.2	5.9	103	3.40
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	65	59	.91	2.6	12	.13	12	2.6	6.8	7.2	25	10	2.6	2.2	69	10.90
Mar. 24	Apr. 2	33	33	1.00	1.8	5.4	.13	10	2.0	.....	.0	26	11	1.6	1.4	50	11.80
Apr. 3	Apr. 14	8	20	2.50	.9	12	.21	16	2.2	6.8	.0	56	9.2	2.0	3.6	82	6.40
Apr. 15	Apr. 24	....	4.2	.....	.4	14	.19	21	3.4	6.3	.0	....	17	2.0	4.2	98	6.10
Apr. 25	May 4	43	77	1.79	1.5	15	.22	24	3.9	5.8	.0	....	18	1.5	4.8	102	10.40
May 5	May 14	1	10	10.00	.5	18	.15	26	6.0	9.0	.0	96	18	1.7	4.2	134	7.50
May 15	May 24	2	20	10.00	.3	9.2	.29	12	4.2	9.0	[c]4.8	36	18	.0	5.0	80	5.60
May 25	June 3	2	15	7.50	.3	6.4	.15	.....	4.2	9.1	[c]4.8	35	19	Tr.	5.0	82	4.70
June 4	June 13	3	36	12.00	.4	12	.27	14	4.2	8.2	[c]4.8	43	20	Tr.	5.0	91	4.80
June 14	June 23	1	18	18.00	.2	10	.17	12	4.2	7.1	[c]12	27	17	Tr.	5.0	80	3.60
June 24	July 3	2	27	13.50	.3	3.4	.06	14	4.6	11	.0	54	20	Tr.	7.0	86	3.60
July 4	July 13	Tr.	3.0	.....	.....	23	.05	26	5.8	11	.0	98	21	.8	6.6	148	4.00
July 14	July 24	Tr.	6.2	.....	.....	14	.06	27	6.2	3.8	.0	.....	17	1.0	4.6	117	4.00
July 25	Aug. 4	Tr.	5.4	.....	.....	7.8	.06	26	4.4	3.5	.0	82	14	.8	4.6	108	3.30
Aug. 5	Aug. 15	Tr.	3.4	.....	.....	9.0	.05	24	4.8	4.6	.0	85	11	.8	4.6	106	2.70
Aug. 16	Aug. 25	Tr.	3.2	.....	.....	5.4	.05	25	6.6	3.3	.0	85	11	.4	4.6	100	2.40
Aug. 27	Sept. 6	8	11	1.38	.....	14	.11	26	2.9	9.1	.0	95	12	.3	5.4	120	2.30
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	18	19	1.06	.....	8.4	.15	20	4.0	3.5	.0	66	13	.3	4.6	91	5.00
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	Tr.	7.0	.....	.....	8.0	.06	17	3.0	5.5	.0	61	14	1.0	2.2	85	4.10
Sept. 27	Oct. 9	5	7.6	1.52	.3	13	.06	20	1.8	.....	.0	67	12	Tr.	3.6	97	4.90
Oct. 10	Oct. 22	3	16	5.33	.7	4.0	.06	17	2.9	1.9	.0	55	9.7	.5	2.4	71	6.30
Mean		14	22	4.00	1.0	10	.12	18	3.4	6.3	.0	63	14	1.5	4.2	90	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	11.3	[d].2	20.4	3.8	7.1	35.0	....	15.8	1.7	4.7	....	.....

[a] Analyses October 28, 1906, to April 2, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 3 to July 3, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 4 to October 22, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Gaging station at Wilkes-Barre, Pa., 10 miles above.

[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3, in the average.

[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Susquehanna River at Williamsport, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	8	8.0	1.00	0.1	7.6	0.10	17.0	4.6	9.9	0.0	40	41	0.5	5.4	110	0.93
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	7	7	1.00	.3	5.2	.10	17	6.2	8.0	.0	38	42	.9	2.0	123	1.14
Oct. 11	Oct. 21	13	16	1.23	.3	9.0	Tr.	14	3.0	7.6	.0	33	34	.6	4.6	97	1.86
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	9	11	1.22	.1	13	Tr.	8.4	1.8	6.0	.0	30	17	.4	2.6	68	3.15
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	5	4.2	.84	.4	5.4	.13	10	2.2	7.7	.0	24	23	.5	3.4	63	2.03
Nov. 11	Nov. 21	6	3.0	.50	.4	5.4	.16	11	3.0	.....	.0	27	21	.5	3.5	66	1.86
Nov. 22	Dec. 2	8	7.2	.90	.6	5.2	.11	8.0	1.8	.....	.0	20	17	.6	2.6	52	3.06
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	14	21	1.50	1.3	5.6	.14	8.4	2.0	6.9	.0	17	18	.6	2.9	55	3.22
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	12	10	.83	1.0	6.2	.15	7.8	2.4	4.9	.0	14	19	1.3	3.4	50	3.63
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	11	21	1.90	.8	6.2	.11	8.4	2.4	5.4	.0	18	20	1.5	3.4	55	2.99
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	19	34	1.79	2.1	6.2	.12	6.2	1.8	4.6	.0	15	16	1.9	2.9	45	6.78
Jan 22	Feb. 1	7	13	1.85	.6	5.8	.11	8.8	2.4	3.8	.0	15	18	1.4	2.4	49	4.96
Feb. 2	Feb. 11	1	0.8	.80	.2	4.0	.06	11	3.2	3.9	.0	18	27	1.8	4.1	62	2.79
Feb. 12	Feb. 21	4	1.8	.45	.5	6.2	.09	13	3.6	5.7	.0	20	32	1.6	4.7	73	2.27
Feb. 22	Mar. 3	2	0.8	.40	.3	5.8	.10	14	3.8	5.5	.0	22	34	1.6	5.0	79	1.80
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	3	1.5	.50	.4	5.2	.19	14	4.0	6.0	.0	22	32	1.6	5.8	78	2.09
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	95	170	1.79	7.2	13	.25	9.6	1.8	5.5	.....	....	18	.9	1.7	55	10.89
Mar. 24	Apr. 3	13	35	2.69	1.0	14	.12	10	2.2	8.4	.....	....	13	.4	7.7	69	7.20
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	12	9.2	.77	.6	8.0	.13	8.2	2.2	8.2	.....	....	19	Tr.	3.4	52	3.37
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	1	3.4	.34	.5	9.4	.17	9.0	2.1	8.8	.....	....	20	1.2	3.4	62	2.64
Apr. 24	May 3	4	16	.40	1.0	16	.15	6.6	1.6	7.4	.....	....	14	1.0	2.4	54	5.02
May 4	May 13	1	14	14.00	.9	7.4	.14	6.6	1.5	4.9	.....	....	14	Tr.	2.4	41	4.67
May 14	May 23	3	13	4.33	.6	18	.12	7.5	1.7	7.7	.....	....	16	Tr.	2.4	64	3.32
May 24	June 2	Tr.	4.6	.....	.2	4.6	.12	9.6	2.2	.....	.....	....	21	Tr.	2.4	55	2.22
June 3	June 12	9	29	3.22	1.4	3.6	.11	7.1	1.7	.....	.0	19	15	Tr.	2.2	44	4.60
June 13	June 23	1	12	12.00	.5	9.8	.12	9.0	2.2	7.4	.....	....	20	Tr.	2.4	62	2.65
June 24	July 3	78	78	1.00	2.2	12	.12	11	2.0	.....	[b] 4.8	16	19	Tr.	3.6	73	3.72
July 4	July 13	8	15	1.88	.....	8.0	.06	8.7	3.4	2.6	.0	23	18	.6	2.2	57	2.98
July 14	July 23	4	15	3.75	.....	6.8	.11	13	4.5	2.2	.0	29	26	.2	3.4	72	1.61
July 24	Aug. 2	Tr.	14	.....	.....	2.8	.15	17	4.9	2.5	.0	26	37	Tr.	4.2	81	1.04
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	Tr.	10	.....	.....	3.8	.12	17	5.4	2.8	.0	32	37	.2	4.8	93	.67
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	3	13	4.33	.....	5.6	.13	19	7.1	5.3	.0	40	45	.2	6.0	111	.50
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	Tr.	5.2	.....	.....	5.4	.16	22	7.9	6.0	.0	55	39	1.0	6.6	117	.36
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	Tr.	4.6	.....	.....	8.6	.14	23	7.9	6.6	.0	55	42	.9	6.2	128	.58
Sept. 12	Sept. 21	2	.....	.....	.....	5.8	.05	22	6.4	5.8	.0	38	51	.0	7.8	122	1.19
Sept. 22	Oct. 2	4	4.4	1.10	.3	11	.08	24	5.4	7.7	.0	44	....	1.1	7.2	120	1.20
Oct. 3	Oct. 11	8	7.0	.88	.6	5.6	.06	17	3.6	.....	.0	....	38	.5	6.2	90	2.03
Mean		10	18	2.23	.9	7.6	.11	12	3.4	6.0	.0	28	26	.7	4.0	74	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	....	10.3	[c] .2	16.3	4.6	8.1	18.8	...	35.3	1.0	5.4	....	.....

[a] Analyses September 21 to October 31, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 1, 1906, to March 13, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; March 14 to April 3, 1907, by M. G. Roberts; April 4 to July 3, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 4 to October 11, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Susquehanna River at Danville, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Sept. 10	Sept. 20	3	.....	.....	.....	15.0	0.30	.....	.....	7.2	0.0	48	39	0.2	4.2	124	2.50
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	4	1.6	0.40	Tr.	14	Tr.	22.0	6.2	11	.0	55	53	.8	4.9	141	2.40
Oct. 1	Oct. 10	22	18	.82	0.4	8.2	Tr.	.....	5.0	8.7	.0	48	35	.4	4.3	105	2.79
Oct. 11	Oct. 20	5	6	1.20	.1	6.4	Tr.	18	5.2	8.2	.0	47	28	1.5	5.0	98	2.90
Oct. 21	Oct. 31	29	61	2.10	2.3	7.0	.05	18	5.6	8.0	.0	67	17	1.3	4.8	98	5.01
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	8	8.0	1.00	.3	6.0	.06	13	2.6	6.6	.0	45	15	.0	3.1	73	4.71
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	9	7.8	.87	.3	6.0	.05	16	3.4	7.2	.0	56	22	Tr.	4.7	88	3.95
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	19	40	2.10	1.8	3.8	.18	12	2.8	6.5	.0	41	13	.3	2.2	64	6.12
Dec. 1	Dec. 10	13	14	1.08	.6	7.6	.09	17	4.0	8.4	.0	51	24	2.6	5.8	92	5.25
Dec. 11	Dec. 21	19	21	1.10	1.0	9.6	.10	15	3.6	8.2	.0	50	20	2.6	5.3	86	5.75
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	22	23	1.04	.8	14	.10	19	5.4	9.4	.0	52	25	5.6	8.6	112	4.83
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	53	80	1.51	2.1	6.4	.19	9.4	3.0	4.7	.0	28	13	2.0	2.3	55	10.52
Jan. 12	Jan. 21	41	18	.44	1.5	15	.26	15	4.0	16	[b]14	40	22	3.0	5.8	121	7.14
Jan. 22	Jan. 31	8	13	1.63	.9	23	.10	30	...	9.8	.0	76	42	11	16	178	6.10
Feb. 1	Feb. 11	12	2.2	.18	.7	8.0	.06	27	6.0	10	.0	68	39	7.2	12	140	3.94
Feb. 13	Feb. 22	15	4.4	.29	.7	5.2	.06	32	7.2	12	[b]4.8	67	40	7.2	13	152	3.28
Feb. 23	Mar. 4	6	2.2	.37	.3	11	.06	25	6.4	8.0	.0	61	41	3.6	6.5	134	.....
Mar. 5	Mar. 14	30	30	1.00	1.0	9.0	.05	26	6.4	12	.0	66	42	7.0	9.8	142	4.38
Mar. 15	Mar. 24	55	71	1.29	3.0	15	.15	6.4	1.4	4.9	.0	24	10	1.9	2.4	56	9.70
Mar. 25	Apr. 3	19	26	1.37	1.4	6.4	.12	11	2.2	5.4	.0	34	14	2.0	3.4	62	9.24
Apr. 4	Apr. 13	10	12	1.20	.5	6.0	.08	20	2.8	9.8	[b]3.4	43	22	5.3	10	104	5.26
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	11	13	1.18	.6	12	.08	19	2.2	11	[b]Tr.	44	22	5.2	9.4	99	5.18
Apr. 24	May 3	42	54	1.28	1.9	12	.13	12	1.0	8.2	.0	43	14	3.1	5.3	76	7.82
May 4	May 13	18	19	1.06	.8	12	.10	18	1.4	8.0	.0	48	18	3.0	7.0	95	6.37
May 14	May 23	8	9.4	1.18	.5	9.6	.06	19	1.6	13	.0	58	20	6.1	9.6	108	4.95
May 24	June 2	40	43	1.08	1.0	13	.18	22	1.6	12	.0	65	21	5.1	9.4	120	4.10
June 3	June 12	3	5.2	1.73	.3	7.2	.03	19	1.2	8.8	.0	48	21	6.2	11	100	4.36
June 13	June 22	3	5.2	1.73	.2	6.2	.05	25	4.0	13	.0	65	30	6.2	14	138	3.41
June 23	July 2	40	39	.97	.4	4.0	.03	23	5.6	5.7	.0	....	32	3.7	12	126	3.19
July 3	July 12	8	34	4.25	.8	6.0	.06	21	4.8	7.9	.0	51	31	2.8	10	116	3.86
July 13	July 23	8	21	2.62	.5	4.2	.06	23	5.6	5.2	.0	55	32	1.8	10	121	3.63
July 24	Aug. 2	1	16	16.00	.3	4.8	.06	22	5.0	9.9	[b]6.0	41	37	1.8	11	122	3.08
Aug. 3	Aug. 12	Tr.	4.8	.....	.2	4.0	.05	28	6.8	9.0	.0	60	47	3.0	11	143	2.59
Aug. 13	Aug. 22	Tr.	4.6	.....	.2	4.0	.05	32	9.8	7.7	.0	62	63	3.0	13	170	2.24
Aug. 23	Sept. 1	Tr.	9.0	.....	.1	2.8	.04	34	10	11	[b]6.0	50	71	2.9	13	177	2.12
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	7	10	1.43	.4	.....	.12	35	11	9.0	.0	79	71	2.9	11	....	2.52
Mean		16	21	1.73	.8	8.7	.09	21	4.6	8.9	.0	54	31	3.4	8.1	112	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	7.7	[c].1	18.7	4.1	7.9	23.7	....	27.6	3.0	7.2	....	....

[a] Analyses September 10 to November 30, 1906, by R. B. Dole; December 1, 1906, to April 3, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 4 to July 2, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts; July 3 to September 11, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Tennessee River near Knoxville, Tenn.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 26	Nov. 4	48	21	0.44	.....	18	0.40	26	1.6	.....	0.0	83	.....	0.2	6.0	111	2.5
Nov. 5	Nov. 14	75	28	.37	.....	26	.6	18	.....	.....	.0	59	.....	.8	.....	93	1.9
Nov. 15	Nov. 24	280	212	.76	.....	29	.8	20	3.6	.....	.0	77	.....	.2	12	128	8.4
Nov. 25	Dec. 4	300	194	.65	.....	26	.9	22	4.0	.....	.0	78	.....	.3	12	124	3.4
Dec. 5	Dec. 15	215	173	.81	.....	30	.7	23	2.8	.....	.0	93	.....	.3	10	131	2.4
Dec. 16	Dec. 30	105	79	.75	.....	24	.10	21	2.8	.....	.0	73	.....	.7	18	136	4.2
Dec. 31	Jan. 9	80	64	.80	.....	25	.30	21	1.2	.....	.0	66	.....	.9	7.0	105	5.8
Jan. 10	Jan. 19	25	16	.64	.....	28	.20	20	1.2	.....	.0	68	.....	1.0	10	118	2.8
Jan. 20	Jan. 29	25	15	.60	.....	13	.20	20	2.0	.....	.0	63	.....	.8	12	96	2.8
Jan. 30	Feb. 8	55	33	.60	.....	16	.40	23	3.6	.....	.0	76	.....	.4	4.5	99	3.0
Feb. 25	Mar. 7	45	32	.71	.....	14	.10	24	2.4	.....	.0	80	.....	.4	6.5	103	4.5
Mar. 8	Mar. 17	60	48	.80	.....	10	.40	26	3.2	.....	.0	85	.....	.3	11	114	5.7
Mar. 18	Mar. 27	275	237	.86	.....	37	.20	20	6.4	.....	.0	85	.....	.7	8.5	136	3.4
Mar. 28	Apr. 6	240	193	.80	.....	38	.20	19	.....	.....	.0	78	.....	.4	10	136	2.8
Apr. 7	Apr. 16	135	136	1.01	.....	30	.30	26	.....	.....	.0	98	.....	.2	6.5	133	4.4
Apr. 17	Apr. 26	155	164	1.06	.....	15	.20	22	.....	.....	.0	85	.....	1.1	9.0	105	3.9
Apr. 27	May 6	170	196	1.15	.....	20	.30	20	3.6	.....	.0	73	.....	.9	7.5	99	3.9
May 7	May 14	105	88	.84	.....	12	.20	20	4.4	.....	.0	73	.....	.8	6.5	88	5.1
May 15	May 24	55	58	1.06	.....	15	.20	22	5.5	12	.....	102	4.3	.5	10	109	2.4
May 25	June 3	85	60	.71	.....	12	.40	22	5.7	.....	.....	95	5.0	.5	11	110	2.3
June 4	June 13	325	450	1.38	.....	17	.6	21	4.3	12	.0	90	5.8	1.3	10	120	6.9
June 14	June 23	335	365	1.09	.....	20	.40	24	4.7	.....	.0	103	4.9	2.0	6.0	125	5.6
June 24	July 3	460	290	.63	.....	25	.30	21	5.0	7.9	.0	101	7.2	1.4	7.0	126	2.9
July 4	July 13	267	221	.83	.....	19	.40	20	4.8	.....	.0	99	5.6	.6	9.5	120	2.0
July 14	July 24	310	300	.97	.....	19	.40	23	5.0	8.2	.0	93	8.1	1.1	7.0	118	3.3
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	350	184	.53	9.1	30	1.4	24	5.6	7.2	Tr.[b]	98	6.9	1.2	11	141	1.8
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	425	177	.42	7.2	30	1.1	.....	5.3	9.1	Tr.[b]	101	6.6	1.2	9.6	139	1.7
Aug. 24	Sept. 2	400	202	.50	11	33	1.4	28	5.9	6.9	[b]3.6	89	7.1	1.0	11	143	1.7
Sept. 3	Sept. 13	285	117	.41	6.1	44	1.0	25	6.4	10	[b]3.6	92	7.1	Tr.	17	164	1.8
Sept. 14	Sept. 28	700	506	.72	18	49	1.9	22	5.7	6.6	Tr.[b]	88	8.4	1.5	13	164	3.1
Sept. 30	Oct. 15	110	81	.74	3.8	57	1.1	24	6.5	3.8	[b]4.8	85	6.2	.5	14	162	1.7
Oct. 16	Oct. 26	20	45	2.25	.9	15	.08	26	7.4	6.6	[b]4.8	96	6.5	.....	5.8	119	0.8
Mean		204	156	.81	.....	25	.54	22	4.3	8.2	.0	86	6.4	.8	9.6	122	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	21.0	[c].6	18.4	3.6	6.9	35.5	....	5.4	.6	8.0	.....	....

[a] Analyses October 26, 1906, to May 14, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 15 to July 24, 1907, by W. D. Collins; August 4 to October 26, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Tennessee River near Gilbertsville, Ky.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Oct. 24	Nov. 10	40	35	0.87	.....	30	0.8	11	.....	.....	0.0	56	.....	0.4	2.0	99	6.0
Nov. 11	Nov. 21	290	258	.89	.....	28	.6	12	2.8	.....	.0	51	.....	.8	1.0	94	9.6
Nov. 22	Dec. 10	225	186	.83	.....	36	.40	14	3.2	.....	.0	49	.....	.8	1.5	102	15.4
Dec. 11	Dec. 20	205	161	.78	.....	31	.6	13	4.8	.....	.0	54	.....	1.0	1.5	109	8.1
Dec. 21	Dec. 30	125	94	.75	.....	15	.30	17	3.2	.....	.0	61	.....	.7	7.0	96	11.2
Dec. 31	Jan. 10	270	245	.91	.....	28	.40	14	4.8	.....	.0	61	.....	1.1	3.0	120	19.6
Jan. 11	Jan. 20	30	21	.70	.....	26	.40	16	6.0	.....	.0	71	.....	1.2	2.7	102	10.8
Jan. 21	Jan. 30	35	19	.54	.....	12	.20	19	4.0	.....	.0	76	.....	.5	2.5	88	12.9
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	190	158	.83	.....	27	.40	16	1.2	.....	.0	.....	.....	1.0	2.0	84	18.0
Feb. 10	Feb. 19	95	74	.78	.....	17	.30	17	1.6	.....	.0	68	.....	.4	2.2	85	10.3
Feb. 20	Mar. 1	380	290	.76	.....	26	.40	15	4.4	.....	.0	54	.....	.3	2.0	79	7.3
Mar. 2	Mar. 11	170	142	.84	.....	22	.10	20	4.8	.....	.0	64	.....	.3	1.0	86	22.3
Mar. 12	Mar. 21	210	185	.88	.....	38	.20	24	.....	.....	.0	88	.....	.7	3.8	130	19.2
Mar. 22	Mar. 31	40	32	.80	.....	21	.20	17	5.2	.....	.0	68	.....	.3	2.0	95	12.8
Apr. 1	Apr. 10	210	196	.93	.....	32	.20	22	2.0	.....	.0	73	.....	.1	2.0	112	7.4
Apr. 11	Apr. 22	80	75	.94	.....	16	.40	16	6.0	.....	.0	68	.....	1.3	3.5	82	9.2
Apr. 23	May 2	115	124	1.08	.....	18	.30	17	6.4	.....	.0	73	.....	1.1	4.5	90	10.0
May 3	May 12	105	96	.91	.....	16	.20	18	.....	.....	.0	73	.....	1.0	4.0	90	17.6
May 14	May 24	175	172	.98	.....	.....	1.0	.....	2.8	5.7	.0	61	12	1.8	1.0	106	17.0
May 25	June 3	90	143	1.59	.....	11	.20	22	2.5	9.2	.0	73	13	2.2	1.4	112	7.0
June 4	June 13	50	57	1.14	.....	11	.17	21	4.8	5.4	.0	73	11	Tr.	2.3	91	8.4
June 14	June 25	125	109	.87	.....	6.6	.40	20	4.9	8.6	.0	72	12	4.0	4.8	114	10.8
June 26	July 7	250	201	.80	.....	8.8	.....	26	3.8	3.8	.0	93	11	3.1	2.2	103	6.3
July 8	July 17	140	135	.96	.....	14	.30	21	2.2	7.5	.0	82	12	2.1	1.9	102	4.6
July 18	July 28	160	100	.62	.....	11	.28	21	5.6	10	.0	82	13	1.8	2.9	118	5.3
July 29	Aug. 9	115	76	.66	.....	15	.21	24	5.2	.....	.0	87	13	1.8	4.0	.....	3.7
Aug. 10	Aug. 20	75	91	1.21	.....	12	.05	21	4.5	.....	.0	.....	14	1.9	2.5	95	3.4
Aug. 21	Aug. 31	85	80	.94	.....	11	.29	21	3.8	6.7	.0	76	14	2.7	4.3	107	3.4
Sept. 2	Sept. 11	80	82	1.02	.....	15	.28	24	5.8	10	.0	88	9.6	0.5	4.0	112	3.1
Sept. 12	Sept. 23	190	106	.56	1.6	20	.6	21	5.3	6.1	.0	87	7.9	2.0	4.2	108	3.3
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	290	170	.59	4.9	27	1.0	21	4.9	5.4	.0	90	7.1	1.2	4.8	121	6.5
Oct. 4	Oct. 14	375	184	.49	7.0	19	1.2	19	3.5	12	<4.8	71	7.4	1.1	6.0	107	4.1
Oct. 15	Oct. 24	40	94	2.35	.....	12	.08	20	3.6	9.4	<3.6	72	6.4	Tr.	3.0	89	2.5
Mean		153	127	.90	.....	20	.39	19	4.1	7.7	.0	72	11	1.2	3.0	101	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	....	....	....	19.6	[d].6	18.6	4.0	7.5	34.8	....	10.8	1.2	2.9	....	.....

[a] Analyses October 24, 1906, to May 12, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 14 to September 11, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 12 to October 24, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.
[b] Gaging station at Johnsonville, Tenn., 80 miles above.
[c] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.
[d] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Tombigbee River near Epes, Ala.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).
Oct. 24	Nov. 2	95	61	0.64	.....	37	0.40	12	2.8	.....	0.0	49	.....	0.4	3.5	95	3.7
Nov. 3	Nov. 12	85	60	.70	.....	34	.20	11	2.8	.....	.0	46	.....	.3	3.0	85	1.9
Nov. 13	Nov. 22	90	88	.98	.....	23	.9	17	2.4	.....	.0	71	.....	.3	2.5	104	4.1
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	90	58	.64	.....	36	.30	.....	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.1	2.0	71	9.8
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	85	54	.63	.....	32	.40	.....	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.4	1.5	68	5.3
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	95	64	.67	.....	27	.20	.....	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.6	1.8	57	10.7
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	135	105	.78	.....	40	.40	22	2.4	.....	.0	76	.....	.5	5.0	129	11.2
Jan. 2	Jan. 14	55	39	.71	.....	20	.40	16	.....	.....	.0	73	.....	.4	4.0	100	12.5
Jan. 15	Jan. 24	30	19	.63	.....	19	.8	18	2.0	.....	.0	61	.....	.3	4.5	93	7.0
Jan. 25	Feb. 3	145	100	.69	.....	33	.20	21	1.6	.....	.0	61	.....	.3	3.5	102	10.5
Feb. 4	Feb. 13	130	99	.76	.....	22	.6	12	1.2	.....	.0	41	.....	.8	2.2	75	31.1
Feb. 14	Feb. 24	8	5.6	.70	.....	9.6	.10	12	Tr.	.....	.0	39	.....	.5	3.8	51	7.8
Feb. 25	Mar. 9	380	310	.82	.....	31	.40	22	2.4	.....	.0	68	.....	.2	3.0	118	28.0
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	85	64	.75	.....	19	.40	14	3.2	.....	.0	51	.....	.4	2.5	73	20.6
Mar. 21	Mar. 30	55	48	.87	.....	21	.40	18	5.2	.....	.0	66	.....	.6	3.5	88	8.4
Mar. 31	Apr. 13	140	156	1.12	.....	26	.30	17	2.8	.....	.0	56	.....	.3	3.5	92	5.8
Apr. 14	Apr. 23	320	300	.94	.....	28	.8	20	2.4	.....	.0	68	.....	.4	3.5	97	9.4
Apr. 24	May 3	450	415	.92	.....	33	.9	22	2.4	.....	.0	73	.....	.2	4.0	104	12.3
May 4	May 13	120	95	.79	.....	21	1.0	20	1.6	.....	.0	61	.....	.1	3.5	88	31.2
May 14	May 24	180	118	.66	7.0	15	1.0	20	1.9	8.5	.0	79	6.2	.0	1.8	94	33.8
May 25	June 3	300	179	.60	10	.....	1.6	21	2.6	12	.0	93	5.9	Tr.	1.8	....	21.6
June 4	June 20	220	129	.59	7.9	23	1.0	22	1.9	8.2	.0	72	6.4	Tr.	1.8	104	12.1
June 22	July 2	260	252	.97	8.8	30	.52	.....	.....	11	.0	90	6.6	Tr.	2.4	127	4.3
July 3	July 12	200	147	.73	8.8	39	1.0	.....	2.0	11	.0	94	7.1	Tr.	2.6	129	3.5
July 13	July 22	45	46	1.02	2.4	27	1.0	23	1.8	12	.0	83	6.7	Tr.	3.2	119	2.9
July 23	Aug. 1	35	28	.80	2.4	25	1.2	19	1.6	10	.0	....	5.9	Tr.	1.8	96	2.4
Aug. 2	Aug. 11	60	30	.50	3.7	20	1.0	18	1.5	11	.0	....	7.9	.2	4.2	95	1.7
Aug. 12	Aug. 21	100	78	.78	3.3	23	.32	21	.9	11	.0	75	5.7	1.7	2.6	102	1.6
Aug. 22	Aug. 31	90	47	.52	3.5	29	1.0	22	.8	11	.0	82	6.1	1.5	2.4	115	2.0
Sept. 14	Sept. 24	20	20	1.00	1.5	16	.52	21	.9	8.8	.0	73	4.8	1.4	3.4	94	.7
Sept. 25	Oct. 4	50	60	1.20	1.5	23	.33	18	1.5	12	.0	71	5.2	1.3	3.0	98	1.4
Oct. 5	Oct. 14	20	25	1.25	1.3	10	.24	16	1.0	7.9	.0	50	6.7	5.0	2.6	71	.9
Oct. 15	Oct. 24	10	16	1.60	1.1	18	.98	13	1.2	7.6	.0	46	6.5	1.2	3.0	73	1.0
Mean		126	100	.82	.....	25	.63	18	1.8	10	.0	67	6.3	.6	3.0	94	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	.....	25.4	[b].9	18.3	1.8	10.1	33.5	....	6.4	.6	3.0	.....	....

[a] Analyses October 24, 1906, to May 13, 1907, by J. R. Evans; May 14 to October 14, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Wabash River near Logansport, Ind.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 9	Sept. 18	105	80	0.76	.....	0.15	66	62	382	[b]7.9	190	82	0.0	741	[illegible]
Sept. 19	Sept. 29	50	31	.62	11	Tr.	102	60	.....	.0	259	97	.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept. 30	Oct. 9	20	18	.90	17	.10	109	63	.....	.0	242	100	.0	737	[illegible]
Oct. 12	Oct. 21	10	3.6	.36	8.0	.10	117	68	434	.0	258	114	Tr.	[illegible]	[illegible]
Oct. 22	Oct. 31	10	6.0	.60	9.6	.20	128	77	473	.0	276	101	.0	915	[illegible]
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	10	7.2	.72	10	.10	112	.....	478	.0	314	112	.4	[illegible]	[illegible]
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	10	7.4	.74	13	.08	133	74	461	.0	317	138	.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Nov. 21	Nov. 30	125	128	1.02	11	.20	91	33	169	.0	206	93	18	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec. 1	Dec. 10	150	128	.85	19	.40	77	36	112	.0	218	97	11	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec. 11	Dec. 21	145	140	.97	22	.85	68	25	61	.0	166	75	11	114	[illegible]
Dec. 22	Dec. 31	50	39	.78	17	.20	92	36	105	.0	259	102	18	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 1	Jan. 10	295	270	.92	29	.....	48	15	34	.0	127	61	9.7	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 12	Jan. 20	240	205	.85	21	1.2	52	17	28	.0	144	44	13	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 21	Jan. 30	280	161	.57	27	1.2	52	17	33	.0	150	52	5.6	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 31	Feb. 9	10	4.4	.44	8.4	.10	97	35	97	.0	298	99	6.4	175	[illegible]
Feb. 10	Feb. 20	Tr.	Tr.	.....	16	Tr.	102	36	119	.0	292	94	6.0	222	[illegible]
Feb. 21	Mar. 3	10	4.0	.40	10	Tr.	94	35	115	.0	278	111	8.4	204	[illegible]
Mar. 4	Mar. 13	370	285	.77	6.4	.05	83	34	118	.0	.....	88	7.3	215	[illegible]
Mar. 14	Mar. 23	650	435	.67	38	1.2	43	15	22	.0	116	46	16	35	[illegible]
Mar. 24	Apr. 3	145	86	.59	12	.25	57	19	38	.0	187	60	4.4	60	[illegible]
Apr. 4	Apr. 14	30	18	.60	10	.20	60	25	83	.0	240	76	6.7	153	[illegible]
Apr. 15	Apr. 25	5	Tr.	.....	8.0	.22	.....	33	98	.0	258	87	7.9	222	[illegible]
Apr. 26	May 7	10	.....	.....	10	.07	89	36	115	.0	234	89	3.2	223	[illegible]
May 8	May 17	8	.....	.....	5.0	.04	87	32	98	.0	242	89	4.3	195	[illegible]
May 18	May 28	20	28	1.40	.....	.04	90	33	.....	.0	260	85	4.1	233	[illegible]
May 29	June 7	90	99	1.10	9.8	.20	66	22	59	.0	195	60	6.1	117	[illegible]
June 8	June 18	150	155	1.03	18	.15	67	18	31	.0	194	42	7.5	62	[illegible]
June 19	June 28	230	208	.90	11	.15	61	20	53	.0	207	53	5.0	99	[illegible]
June 29	July 8	50	52	1.04	11	.05	88	29	.....	.0	277	63	4.4	195	[illegible]
July 10	July 21	900	802	.89	14	.10	63	20	62	.0	195	50	8.8	95	[illegible]
July 22	July 31	140	115	.82	11	.02	67	22	53	.0	239	56	2.9	63	[illegible]
Aug. 1	Aug. 10	50	116	2.32	11	.05	84	33	102	.0	288	64	2.2	174	[illegible]
Aug. 11	Aug. 20	85	74	.87	9.0	.05	85	35	108	.0	292	73	1.8	214	[illegible]
Aug. 21	Aug. 30	75	66	.88	20	.05	89	44	176	.0	295	80	1.8	312	[illegible]
Aug. 31	Sept. 9	75	84	1.12	9.8	.08	67	24	94	.0	217	48	3.5	150	[illegible]
Mean		132	117	.85	14	.23	82	35	142	.0	234	79	5.9	282	[illegible]
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	1.8	[c].0	10.7	4.6	18.5	15.1	.....	10.3	.8	38.2	

[a] Analyses September 9, 1906, to February 9, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 10 to March 3, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 4 to September 9, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Wabash River at Vincennes, Ind.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 9	Sept. 19	50	38	0.76	8.0	0.05	54	26	46	0.0	232	55	1.3	84	421	1.6
Sept. 20	Oct. 1	90	36	.40	5.4	.05	65	24	49	.0	254	56	1.3	90	436	1.3
Oct. 2	Oct. 16	.....	21	.....	12	.10	61	25	31	.0	232	64	4.4	60.	376	2.3
Oct. 17	Oct. 30	15	18	1.20	12	Tr.	75	26	54	.0	266	68	4.4	89	470	1.4
Oct. 31	Nov. 13	25	26	1.04	10	Tr.	73	30	60	.0	279	60	1.8	104	504	1.1
Nov. 14	Nov. 24	205	187	.91	11	Tr.	68	27	.....	.0	246	65	2.2	84	436	3.9
Nov. 25	Dec. 4	180	181	1.00	12	.25	63	20	36	.0	200	71	11	53	360	9.1
Dec. 5	Dec. 15	290	294	1.02	5.2	.40	64	18	19	.0	188	67	16	29	322	8 9
Dec. 15	Dec. 25	135	164	1.22	12	.40	59	16	21	.0	196	58	18	26	330	13.2
Dec. 26	Jan. 5	190	214	1.13	13	.6	62	22	19	.0	209	61	5.3	21	307	10.5
Jan. 7	Jan. 17	170	122	.72	15	.7	45	16	12	.0	.....	39	13	13	232	22.8
Jan. 18	Jan. 27	315	194	.62	30	.....	.....	.....	8.1	.0	147	39	6.5	8.3	209	23.3
Jan. 28	Feb. 6	120	68	.57	18	.9	47	19	12	.0	168	.....	6.1	8.8	242	19.4
Feb. 7	Feb. 18	40	52	1.30	12	.10	69	23	.....	.0	264	73	8.1	24	348	7.0
Feb. 19	Feb. 28	30	28	.93	12	.05	69	22	25	.0	255	60	8.8	30	358	6.0
Mar. 1	Mar. 10	50	36	.72	15	.15	69	25	29	.0	256	72	8.5	28	356	6.4
Mar. 11	Mar. 25	625	624	1.00	36	1.8	46	22	10	.0	171	46	6.1	21	287	18.6
Mar. 26	Apr. 15	75	70	.93	16	.18	58	17	12	.0	216	.....	7.8	16	288	8.0
Apr. 16	Apr. 24	75	43	.57	9.0	.09	.....	23	20	.0	246	61	7.9	27	339	5.3
Apr. 27	May 8	50	76	1.52	10	.28	62	24	26	.0	228	61	6.9	37	350	7.9
May 10	May 19	85	187	2 20	6.4	.17	61	24	20	.0	264	57	.8	27	335	5.9
May 20	June 1	425	656	1.54	3.0	.21	51	17	19	.0	192	46	6.6	14	268	6.8
June 3	June 13	195	305	1.56	5.6	.01	51	15	13	.0	.....	.....	16	15	295	15.8
June 14	June 26	170	221	1.30	14	.05	62	.....	21	.0	220	51	11	33	329	7.2
June 27	July 7	300	381	1.27	16	.20	62	22	17	.0	255	44	7.5	20	317	6.0
July 8	July 18	280	270	.97	12	.20	62	20	21	.0	252	45	.9	24	316	5.5
July 19	July 31	300	409	1.36	16	.02	53	17	15	.0	208	37	3.5	14	283	8.2
Aug. 1	Aug. 14	450	567	1.26	14	.01	62	20	21	.0	253	50	2.0	13	311	4.3
Aug. 15	Aug. 26	130	156	1.20	13	.09	62	21	24	.0	262	45	1.9	20	302	3.8
Aug. 27	Sept. 6	80	246	3.07	9.2	.04	64	24	29	.0	264	45	1.1	26	322	3.8
Sept. 7	Sept. 16	30	81	2.70	28	.01	61	20	28	.0	241	49	1.1	43	362	3.7
Mean		172	193	1.20	13	.24	61	22	25	.0	230	55	6.4	36	336	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	3.9	c.1	18.4	6.6	7.5	34.1	.....	16.6	2.0	10.8	.....	.....

[a] Analyses September 9, 1906, to February 6, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 7 to 28, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 1 to September 16, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.
[b] Gaging station at Mount Carmel, Ill., 30 miles below.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Wateree River near Camden, S. C.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mineral matter (calc.)
Oct. 21	Oct. 30	70	65	0.93	.....	25	.....	6.8	4.8	.....	0.0	33	.....	0.9	2.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	55	13	.24	.....	24	0.5	5.5	.8	.....	.0	22	.....	Tr.	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Nov. 11	Nov. 20	45	21	.47	.....	28	.9	4.7	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.3	2.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Nov. 21	Dec. 1	75	28	.37	.....	31	.7	6.0	1.2	.....	.0	22	.....	.4	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec. 2	Dec. 13	60	25	.42	.....	28	.8	5.5	1.6	.....	.0	22	.....	.5	2.8	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec. 14	Dec. 24	85	50	.59	.....	31	.9	6.2	1.6	.....	.0	24	.....	.6	2.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
Dec. 25	Jan. 3	125	62	.50	.....	43	.20	.....	.8	.....	.0	37	.....	.5	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 4	Jan. 14	75	62	.83	.....	20	.40	4.2	Tr.	.....	.0	.....	.....	.8	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 16	Jan. 25	10	7.0	.70	.....	16	.10	.....	1.2	.....	.0	39	.....	.1	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Jan. 26	Feb. 4	35	24	.68	.....	30	.30	8.0	2.0	.....	.0	32	.....	.9	3.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
Feb. 5	Feb. 15	35	29	.83	.....	15	.30	8.8	2.0	.....	.0	30	.....	.1	3.3	[illegible]	[illegible]
Feb. 16	Feb. 26	60	48	.80	.....	17	.10	9.6	1.6	.....	.0	32	.....	.4	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Feb. 27	Mar. 8	80	65	.81	.....	18	.20	8.4	Tr.	.....	.0	27	.....	.3	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mar. 10	Mar. 19	65	51	.78	.....	16	.10	.....	1.2	.....	.0	46	.....	.8	1.2	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mar. 20	Mar. 29	105	94	.90	.....	16	.20	9.2	.8	.....	.0	29	.....	.6	2.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mar. 30	Apr. 8	35	34	.97	.....	19	.20	10	1.2	.....	.0	34	.....	.5	3.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
Apr. 9	Apr. 18	15	14	.93	.....	23	.20	7.2	2.8	.....	.0	29	.....	.2	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
Apr. 19	Apr. 28	80	99	1.24	.....	29	.30	5.0	1.6	.....	.0	22	.....	.1	4.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
Apr. 29	May 9	75	84	1.12	.....	21	.20	5.5	.8	5.0	.0	22	Tr.	.2	4.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
May 10	May 19	140	94	.67	.....	26	[b]2.8	6.1	4.0	6.0	.0	47	2.0	.4	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
May 20	May 30	325	254	.78	.....	41	[b]3.2	7.3	2.8	.....	.0	43	4.3	.3	2.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
May 31	June 9	500	546	1.09	.....	19	[b]3.2	4.5	1.3	10	.0	35	5.6	.5	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
June 10	June 19	600	720	1.20	.....	25	[b]3.0	4.9	2.4	6.1	.0	37	6.6	.3	2.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
June 20	June 29	500	544	1.09	.....	31	[b]4.0	4.9	3.1	3.5	.0	35	1.8	.5	2.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
June 30	July 9	730	619	.85	.....	34	[b]4.0	6.3	2.3	6.3	.0	37	5.9	.2	3.0	[illegible]	[illegible]
July 10	July 19	566	494	.87	.....	31	[b]2.0	6.5	2.6	7.5	.0	41	5.4	.2	2.5	[illegible]	[illegible]
July 20	July 29	960	606	.63	9.6	19	.03	5.3	1.8	11	.0	40	4.3	.7	1.9	[illegible]	[illegible]
July 30	Aug. 9	960	606	.63	11	22	.40	5.8	1.4	11	.0	40	4.6	.7	1.7	[illegible]	[illegible]
Aug. 10	Aug. 20	475	421	.89	21	20	.07	5.6	1.4	8.7	.0	39	4.4	.5	1.4	[illegible]	[illegible]
Aug. 24	Sept. 3	525	406	.77	18	23	.06	5.0	1.4	11	.0	38	4.1	.6	2.2	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept. 4	Sept. 14	400	231	.58	15	17	.04	5.5	2.3	8.8	.0	39	4.4	.3	2.2	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept. 15	Sept. 24	350	284	.81	10	.....	.04	8.0	4.4	12	.....	.....	5.4	Tr.	1.4	[illegible]	[illegible]
Sept. 25	Oct. 4	550	530	.96	24	31	Tr.	3.1	1.4	7.6	.0	26	4.6	.5	2.2	[illegible]	[illegible]
Oct. 15	Oct. 25	45	40	.89	2.2	33	.03	6.1	1.4	12	.0	43	4.3	Tr.	2.2	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mean		259	214	.79	.....	25	.28	6.3	1.8	8.4	.0	34	4.2	.4	2.8	73	
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	37.9	[c].6	9.5	2.7	12.7	25.4	.....	6.4	.6	4.2	.....	

[a] Analyses October 21, 1906, to May 9, 1907, by Jas. R. Evans; May 10 to July 19, 1907, by W. Collins; July 20 to October 25, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Omitted from average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from East Fork of White River near Azalia, Ind.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 12	Sept. 23	25	22	0.88	29	Tr.	.....	.....	8.6	0.0	293	24	1.8	8.0	305
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	55	61	1.11	13	0.10	56	24	7.6	.0	268	30	2.2	5.5	264
Oct. 5	Oct. 15	25	29	1.16	18	.10	64	25	15	.0	290	26	3.9	3.7	290
Oct. 16	Oct. 25	10	14	1.40	9.6	Tr.	66	26	12	.0	300	25	.9	4.1	280
Oct. 26	Nov. 4	10	9.2	.92	13	Tr.	63	29	16	.0	319	35	.5	5.9	302
Nov. 5	Nov. 16	5	Tr.	.....	15	.05	70	28	13	.0	316	33	1.4	2.0	305
Nov. 17	Nov. 27	95	98	1.03	11	.30	53	18	12	.0	225	34	4.4	2.4	236
Nov. 28	Dec. 7	25	26	1.04	18	.05	67	24	.....	.0	307	40	9.7	2.7	311
Dec. 8	Dec. 18	40	39	.98	22	.10	62	20	13	.0	266	37	8.8	2.3	289
Dec. 19	Dec. 28	10	3.2	.32	13	.05	66	27	5.6	.0	303	33	9.7	.....	306
Dec. 29	Jan. 7	125	114	.91	21	1.2	42	.....	7.5	.0	176	28	4.4	1.3	196
Jan. 8	Jan. 17	70	32	.46	16	Tr.	45	15	4.8	.0	184	35	7.9	1.6	197
Jan. 18	Jan. 27	120	67	.56	16	.40	43	16	6.3	.0	177	23	7.0	2.0	196
Jan. 28	Feb. 7	5	Tr.	.....	22	Tr.	70	27	.....	.0	300	32	7.3	2.2	307
Feb. 8	Feb. 17	5	7.6	1.52	12	.10	79	26	.....	.0	320	39	9.2	2.7	312
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	5	2.0	.40	15	Tr.	68	28	11	.0	318	34	6.2	2.5	331
Feb. 28	Mar. 10	50	53	1.06	15	Tr.	60	22	9.4	.0	267	34	9.9	2.3	272
Mar. 11	Mar. 20	220	155	.70	21	.8	42	.....	11	.0	192	18	8.6	2.5	209
Mar. 21	Mar. 30	30	32	1.07	11	.15	64	21	7.9	.0	284	31	5.0	2.8	280
Mar. 31	Apr. 9	10	Tr.	.....	10	.10	60	22	5.6	.0	.....	30	8.8	2.0	269
Apr. 10	Apr. 19	3	Tr.	.....	11	.05	58	24	7.6	.0	279	33	12	2.3	283
Apr. 21	Apr. 29	20	31	1.55	6.6	.20	56	23	7.8	.0	246	36	9.6	2.4	261
Apr. 30	May 9	10	Tr.	.....	8.0	.01	59	24	6.7	.0	268	31	7.5	2.3	280
May 10	May 21	75	62	.83	6.8	.04	.....	24	6.2	.0	266	32	4.4	2.5	256
May 22	May 31	105	94	.90	9.0	.16	58	23	5.9	.0	258	33	6.0	2.2	269
June 1	June 11	245	240	.98	14	.25	54	17	5.9	.0	230	23	10	1.6	240
June 12	June 23	60	93	1.55	25	.20	64	19	5.2	.0	269	28	4.4	1.9	292
June 24	July 3	10	Tr.	.....	15	.01	66	24	7.3	.0	323	26	4.2	3.1	305
July 4	July 14	245	213	.87	13	.35	58	21	9.2	.0	263	26	6.0	1.6	256
July 15	July 24	75	78	1.04	15	.12	64	23	13	.0	300	27	7.8	2.0	303
July 25	Aug. 3	50	.....	.....	13	.08	67	.....	12	.0	304	28	4.9	2.5	297
Aug. 4	Aug. 13	10	47	4.70	13	.01	72	26	14	.0	316	35	1.6	3.8	334
Aug. 14	Aug. 24	10	14	1.40	18	Tr.	.....	25	.....	.0	316	31	1.1	.....	329
Aug. 25	Sept. 3	10	28	2.80	12	.10	65	25	9.2	.0	308	29	2.2	4.0	291
Sept. 4	Sept. 13	5	Tr.	.....	14	.01	64	25	13	.0	320	29	2.6	5.3	300
Sept. 14	Sept. 23	30	30	1.00	16	Tr.	67	22	11	[b] 8.4	261	26	2.2	6.0	286
Sept. 24	Oct. 3	25	26	1.04	21	Tr.	66	22	12	[b] 12	259	28	1.7	6.2	292
Mean		52	48	1.18	15	.14	61	23	9.5	.0	276	30	5.6	3.1	279
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	5.3	[c] .1	21.5	8.1	3.3	48.0	.....	10.6	2.0	1.1	....

[a] Analyses September 12, 1906, to February 17, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 18 to 27, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 28 to September 13, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle; September 14 to October 3, 1907, by R. B. Dole, Chase Palmer, and W. D. Collins.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from West Fork of White River near Indianapolis, Ind.[a]

[Parts per million, unless otherwise stated.]

Date (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.
Sept. 8	Sept. 18	25	18	0.72	27	0.10	81	36	78	0.0	301	67	1.7	145	590
Sept. 19	Sept. 28	20	12	.60	20	Tr.	83	43	127	.0	303	78	.5	262	793
Sept. 29	Oct. 8	25	13	.52	22	.7	78	37	91	[b]6.5	280	74	.9	195	668
Oct. 9	Oct. 19	15	5.6	.37	11	.10	84	37	109	.0	293	73	1.1	215	701
Oct. 20	Oct. 31	10	5.2	.52	8.4	.10	93	.....	138	.0	331	125	.7	207	705
Nov. 1	Nov. 11	10	11	1.10	19	Tr.	95	38	129	.0	344	75	1.3	251	798
Nov. 12	Nov. 21	10	8.8	.88	14	.20	95	36	123	.0	353	79	2.2	216	754
Nov. 23	Dec. 2	40	28	.70	18	Tr.	73	27	44	.0	266	78	13	63	448
Dec. 3	Dec. 12	30	21	.70	22	.13	77	34	47	.0	287	85	9.7	72	474
Dec. 13	Dec. 22	30	29	.97	20	.20	71	33	26	.0	254	76	13	38	382
Dec. 23	Jan. 4	40	27	.68	16	.8	79	28	34	.0	290	68	8.8	55	412
Jan. 5	Jan. 14	125	96	.77	13	.5	50	.....	14	.0	205	41	14	14	249
Jan. 15	Jan. 25	125	101	.81	18	.6	48	17	20	.0	.....	36	9.5	13	245
Jan. 26	Feb. 4	20	25	1.25	12	.10	79	26	20	.0	293	56	6.3	35	378
Feb. 5	Feb. 14	10	4.8	.48	10	.10	86	32	38	.0	349	61	7.6	52	451
Feb. 16	Feb. 25	Tr.	Tr.	.....	10	.10	82	29	38	.0	311	60	9.7	60	441
Feb. 26	Mar. 7	5	.....	.....	15	.08	79	31	49	.0	314	52	5.9	65	454
Mar. 8	Mar. 17	235	124	.53	9.0	.20	62	23	26	.0	.....	38	9.7	30	305
Mar. 18	Mar. 27	35	30	.86	16	Tr.	64	24	21	.0	262	42	4.7	26	339
Mar. 28	Apr. 7	10	.....	.....	7.0	.10	66	24	32	.0	266	47	10	46	351
Apr. 8	Apr. 17	5	Tr.	.....	12	.18	75	27	36	.0	281	55	5.8	62	422
Apr. 18	Apr. 27	5	Tr.	.....	8.8	.20	65	30	41	.0	273	60	4.8	67	414
Apr. 29	May 8	10	34	3.40	8.8	.05	69	30	34	.0	280	59	6.2	57	425
May 9	May 19	10	.....	.....	10	.02	72	29	35	.0	282	48	4.1	57	416
May 20	May 30	20	50	2.50	6.8	.02	74	27	35	.0	282	58	8.3	70	415
June 1	June 10	80	52	.65	9.6	.01	61	22	18	.0	236	44	5.6	33	343
June 11	June 20	50	71	1.42	23	.05	67	21	14	.0	260	42	3.4	21	332
June 21	June 30	25	.....	.....	16	.06	69	26	.....	.0	298	45	7.9	34	365
July 1	July 11	50	36	.72	13	.10	70	27	29	.0	298	49	7.1	43	380
July 13	July 22	130	122	.94	14	.05	66	19	17	.0	259	20	6.0	15	300
July 23	Aug 2	80	111	1.39	9.0	.01	72	22	26	.0	305	40	6.6	27	357
Aug. 3	Aug. 13	30	72	2.40	15	Tr.	74	28	31	.0	312	45	7.3	38	415
Aug. 14	Aug. 23	20	26	1.30	11	.02	77	30	42	.0	326	51	4.9	50	430
Aug. 24	Sept. 3	20	17	.85	12	.30	70	29	42	.0	295	58	1.3	54	408
Sept. 4	Sept. 12	10	.....	.....	15	.08	75	22	37	.0	298	47	4.8	42	396
Mean		39	38	1.04	14	.15	74	29	48	.0	291	58	6.1	78	450
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	3.1	[c].0	16.4	6.4	10.7	31.8	.....	12.9	1.4	17.3	....

[a] Analyses September 8, 1906, to February 14, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 16 to 25, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; February 26 to September 12, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.

[b] Abnormal; computed as HCO_3 in the average.

[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Wisconsin River near Portage, Wis.[a]

[Parts per million unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 11	Sept. 20	10	7.6	0.76	26	0.25	14	7.3	9.2	0.0	66	.....	1.3	0.8	117	5.2
Sept. 21	Sept. 30	15	9.6	.64	16	.40	14	7.2	.....	.0	68	13	.9	2.5	109	5.3
Oct. 1	Oct. 11	10	4.0	.40	13	Tr.	16	8.5	7.8	.0	66	13	.5	1.5	105	4.8
Oct. 12	Oct. 22	5	5.6	1.12	15	.30	16	8.3	10	.0	75	16	.5	1.0	98	4.9
Oct. 23	Oct. 31	5	9.2	1.84	19	Tr.	16	8.9	7.6	.0	60	24	Tr.	4.0	108	6.5
Nov. 1	Nov. 10	5	5.6	1.12	17	Tr.	15	7.3	7.1	.0	51	15	Tr.	2.5	100	6.1
Nov. 11	Nov. 21	10	6.0	.60	6.6	.10	14	6.2	7.8	.0	49	11	.4	1.5	100	5.7
Nov. 22	Dec. 1	10	4.0	.40	6.4	.10	13	5.4	7.6	.0	48	14	.4	6.0	93	6.8
Dec. 2	Dec. 11	10	10	1.00	16	.30	.....	4.9	9.7	.0	43	19	1.3	1.3	89	6.8
Dec. 12	Dec. 22	10	5.6	.56	22	.40	13	7.4	11	.0	59	19	.4	3.2	112	6.5
Dec. 23	Jan. 1	5	2.0	.40	15	.40	14	6.8	.....	.0	48	25	Tr.	.9	105	....
Jan. 2	Jan. 11	5	Tr.	.....	16	.40	15	7.6	7.8	.0	72	19	.4	1.8	106	....
Jan. 12	Jan. 22	5	1.6	.32	15	.20	.....	7.2	7.3	.0	72	23	1.4	2.8	102	....
Jan. 23	Feb. 1	5	Tr.	.....	13	.25	16	9.6	5.9	.0	71	.....	Tr.	1.8	105	....
Feb. 2	Feb. 12	5	9.2	1.84	13	.40	18	6.7	13	.0	76	25	2.4	.....	108	....
Feb. 13	Feb. 23	5	2.0	.40	13	.20	.....	7.6	10	.0	72	15	2.2	4.5	98	....
Feb. 24	Mar. 6	5	Tr.	.....	11	.18	17	8.3	12	.0	75	23	1.6	2.1	109	....
Mar. 7	Mar. 17	10	10	1.00	10	.23	15	.....	11	.0	73	.....	1.9	1.8	107	6.4
Mar. 18	Mar. 28	10	14	1.40	9.0	.20	11	7.2	5.1	.0	47	13	1.9	1.8	78	7.7
Mar. 29	Apr. 7	5	Tr.	.....	5.8	.20	9.2	2.8	4.3	.0	26	11	1.7	1.2	65	12.3
Apr. 8	Apr. 17	10	.....	.....	18	.15	11	4.8	.....	.0	49	21	1.0	.6	96	9.2
Apr. 18	Apr. 27	5	Tr.	.....	11	.20	10	4.9	5.9	.0	37	16	.5	1.9	78	7.8
Apr. 28	May 7	5	Tr.	.....	7.6	.25	11	5.0	5.7	.0	35	17	Tr.	.....	87	7.9
May 8	May 17	Tr.	Tr.	.....	6.8	.20	.....	5.5	4.6	.0	43	11	Tr.	1.5	88	7.2
Mean		7	4.6	.86	13	.22	14	6.8	8.1	.0	58	17	.9	2.1	98	....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		....	.....	.....	14.3	[c].3	15.4	7.5	8.9	31.5	.....	18.8	1.0	2.3	.....	....

[a] Analyses September 11, 1906, to February 12, 1907, by W. M. Barr; February 13 to March 6, 1907, by H. S. Spaulding; March 7 to May 17, 1907, by Walton Van Winkle.
[b] Gaging station at Necedah, Wis., 50 miles below.
[c] Fe_2O_3.

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Mineral analyses of water from Youghiogheny River near McKeesport, Pa.[a]

[Parts per million unless otherwise stated.]

Date. (1906-7). From—	To—	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Aluminum (Al).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K)	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Acidity as H_2SO_4.	Mean gage height (feet).[b]
Sept. 6	Sept. 16	4	.....	.....	.....	11	6.7	.....	37	14	13	0.0	0.0	.....	Tr.	5.5	397	72	0.06
Sept. 17	Sept. 26	22	18	0.82	7.6	12	5.8	.....	52	17	21	.0	.0	300	Tr.	6.0	453	75	.....
Sept. 27	Oct. 6	5	11	2.20	8.4	10	7.0	.....	42	16	16	.0	.0	245	0.0	5.0	374	66	.06
Oct. 7	Oct. 16	3	4	1.33	4.5	8.2	.5	5.0	29	8.4	12	.0	.0	172	.7	4.8	298	34	.65
Oct. 17	Oct. 26	8	10	1.25	3.3	8.4	.4	6.0	29	5.6	10	.0	.0	167	.8	5.8	249	20	.52
Oct. 27	Nov. 5	11	14	1.28	6.5	9.0	.5	7.2	29	5.6	12	.0	.0	174	.4	5.4	251	30	.21
Nov. 6	Nov. 15	8	19	2.38	9.9	7.8	.8	.....	34	5.8	14	.0	.0	227	.6	5.7	311	53	.05
Nov. 16	Nov. 25	140	172	1.23	20	5.6	.2	4.0	22	3.2	8.8	.0	.0	127	.8	4.6	184	22	2.04
Nov. 26	Dec. 5	49	32	.65	5.7	5.6	.07	.....	15	4.0	10	.0	.0	97	.8	3.4	118	16	1.25
Dec. 6	Dec. 16	190	443	2.33	19	5.2	.09	0.8	12	4.2	3.9	.0	c 3.9	40	2.8	3.8	84	.0	4.50
Dec. 17	Dec. 27	50	39	.78	3.5	3.8	.12	2.6	14	4.8	4.4	.0	.0	73	2.8	3.8	119	10	3.41
Dec. 28	Jan. 7	190	238	1.25	17	7.8	.07	3.4	17	5.4	4.1	.0	.0	85	2.1	3.7	138	10	5.31
Jan. 8	Jan. 17	230	274	1.19	12	6.0	.06	2.0	14	4.2	.....	.0	c 5.1	62	2.1	3.1	103	.0	8.20
Jan. 18	Jan. 26	210	500	2.38	20	8.6	.06	5.6	20	5.6	5 7	.0	.0	104	1.9	3.6	164	10	7.60
Jan. 29	Feb. 7	47	39	.84	7.2	8.6	.35	8.2	23	7.5	6.9	.0	.0	141	2.0	4.8	226	33	3.70
Feb. 8	Feb. 17	43	54	1.26	8.6	8.2	.2	8.8	23	7.2	6.6	.0	.0	142	1.9	4.0	224	30	2.62
Feb. 18	Feb. 27	55	35	.64	8.8	7.2	.13	5.8	18	5.8	5.0	.0	.0	107	2.0	3.8	171	20	4.26
Feb. 28	Mar. 9	80	47	.59	13	6.4	.15	3.7	.....	3.8	2.7	.0	.0	82	.5	3.8	127	15	3.21
Mar. 10	Mar. 22	1,600	1,580	.99	135	8.8	.10	2.3	.....	5.2	5.5	.0	c 7.5	86	1.6	2.6	140	.0	10.34
Mar. 23	Apr. 1	140	55	.39	18	11	.18	10	28	7.6	7.7	.0	.0	165	1.6	3.0	239	22	3.43
Apr. 2	Apr. 14	110	62	.56	26	11	.15	11	30	8.6	11	.0	.0	184	.6	5.0	277	66	2.00
Apr. 15	Apr. 24	240	178	.74	47	16	.07	2.8	17	5.2	7.6	.0	.0	86	1.3	4.2	140	17	3.26
Apr. 25	May 4	82	49	.60	12	7.6	.05	2.2	16	4.6	7.9	.0	.0	74	1.1	2.4	123	11	3.16
May 5	May 15	540	640	1.18	70	14	.06	0.5	20	6.4	8.2	.0	c 7.3	78	1.1	5.0	143	.0	3.85
May 16	May 25	45	33	.73	12	8.4	.06	4.2	19	6.2	9.1	.0	.0	104	.7	4.2	157	11	2.37
May 26	June 4	160	103	.64	18	7.2	.05	2.2	16	5.2	7.2	.0	.0	74	.7	3.0	118	6.9	3.26
June 5	June 14	290	450	1.55	32	8.2	.03	0.7	13	3.6	9.1	.0	c 6.1	54	1.1	2.4	98	.0	4.37
June 15	June 24	60	68	1.14	8.8	8.4	.04	2.2	17	5.2	8.8	.0	.0	80	1.1	4.2	129	3.4	3.00
June 25	July 4	7	21	3.00	6.0	7.8	.04	2.4	24	6.8	11	.0	.0	116	.7	6.6	181	22	1.30
July 5	July 14	52	67	1.29	16	9.4	.09	2.8	30	8.2	13	.0	.0	152	.6	5.8	236	28	1.51
July 16	July 26	46	51	1.11	3.2	6.8	.05	.....	14	3.8	14	.0	c Tr.	66	1.3	4.8	112	.0	2.67
July 27	Aug. 5	106	118	1.12	9.8	6.8	.04	1.3	16	4.2	7.9	.0	.0	76	1.2	3.2	120	3.9	2.16
Aug. 6	Aug. 15	31	33	1.06	4.2	7.8	.03	2.1	24	7.0	10	.0	.0	116	.7	4.8	183	14	1.35

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Aug. 16 Aug. 27	Aug. 20 Sept. 6	[illegible] 55	[illegible] 53	.96	5.6	10	.05	3.3	30	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mean		141	163	1.20	18	8.5	.70	4.0	23	6.7	9.3	.0	.0	123	1.1	4.5	197	22	.....
Per ct. of anhydrous residue		.....	.....	.....	.....	4.7	[d].4	2.2	12.7	3.7	5.2	.0	.....	68.0	3.6	2.5	.....	.....	.....

[a] Analyses September 6 to November 5, 1906, by R. B. Dole; November 6, 1906, to April 1, 1907, by R. B. Dole and M. G. Roberts; April 2 to September 6, 1907, by Chase Palmer and M. G. Roberts.

[b] Gaging station at West Newton, Pa., 10 miles above.

[c] Omitted from the average.

[d] $Fe_2O_3+Al_2O_3$.

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Summary of results of mineral analyses of surface waters for eastern United States.

Source of sample (river, except as noted).	Average mineralization (parts per million).															Chemical composition of mineral matter (per cent of anhydrous residue[a]).								
	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Silica (SiO_2).	Oxide of iron (Fe_2O_3).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).
Alabama, Selma, Ala	141	100	0.72	.....	21	0.53	13	2.9	7.0	0.0	48	9.0	0.7	2.3	82	26.2	0.9	16.2	3.6	8.7	29.4	11.2	0.9	2.9
Allegheny, Kittanning, Pa	21	30	1.14	1.2	7.9	.13	14	3.0	11	.0	38	17	.7	14	87	9.1	.2	16.1	3.5	12.7	21.9	19.6	.8	16.1
Androscoggin, Brunswick, Me.[a]	.....	.....	.....	.....	9.0	[b]3.2	7.4	1.1	3.5	.....	.....	12	.....	2.3	42	18.6	[b]6.6	15.3	2.3	7.3	20.3	24.8	.....	4.8
Arkansas, Little Rock, Ark	755	748	.88	.....	28	.82	55	13	144	.0	148	93	2.0	203	630	4.6	.2	9.0	2.1	23.5	11.9	15.2	.3	33.2
Big Muddy, Murphysboro, Ill	245	129	.5	.....	24	2.1	25	12	20	.....	72	72	2.0	13	225	11.6	1.0	12.2	5.7	10.0	17.2	35.1	1.0	6.2
Big Vermilion, Danville, Ill	115	82	.8	.....	14	.29	54	25	13	.....	243	42	12	4.5	281	4.9	.1	19.0	8.8	4.6	42.1	14.7	4.2	1.6
Brazos, Waco, Tex	1,462	488	1.03	.....	22	.26	121	19	234	.0	158	279	2.2	338	1,136	2.0	.0	11.1	1.7	21.4	7.1	25.5	.2	31.0
Cache, Mounds, Ill	134	66	.6	.....	22	2.5	19	6.0	15	.....	85	19	2.1	6.8	149	16.4	1.9	14	4.4	11	30.7	14	1.5	5.0
Cahaba, Birmingham, Ala	40	32	.81	.....	16	.44	13	2.5	9.1	.0	52	8.8	.6	2.2	76	20.4	.8	16.6	3.2	11.6	32.7	11.2	.7	2.8
Cape Fear, Wilmington, N. C	73	21	.92	1.3	9.9	.78	5.0	1.5	7.2	.0	25	3.2	.2	5.8	57	21.6	2.4	10.9	3.3	15.7	26.1	7.0	.4	12.6
Cedar, Cedar Rapids, Iowa	64	61	.97	.....	14	.09	48	16	12	.0	209	30	3.1	3.4	228	6.1	.1	20.9	7.0	5.2	44.8	13.0	1.4	1.5
Chattahoochee, West Point, Ga.	185	136	.71	.....	20	.47	4.8	.8	7.7	.0	23	4.5	.7	2.1	52	38.0	1.3	9.1	1.6	14.6	21.5	8.5	1.4	4.0
Chippewa, Eau Claire, Wis	7.0	3.7	.97	.....	12	.22	13	4.7	8.1	.0	48	14	.6	1.1	90	15.5	.4	16.8	6.1	10.5	30.5	18.0	.8	1.4
Colorado, Austin, Tex	.....	351	.....	.....	18	3.1	52	17	49	.0	195	42	.....	59	321	5.4	.9	15.5	5.1	14.6	28.5	12.5	.....	17.5
Cumberland:																								
Nashville, Tenn	126	94	.74	.....	20	.42	26	3.6	9.6	.0	92	14	1.2	2.1	119	16.4	.5	21.3	2.9	7.8	37.0	11.4	1.0	1.7
Kuttawa, Ky	176	165	.92	.....	18	.30	28	4.3	7.8	.9	100	9.7	1.8	3.0	124	14.6	.4	22.8	3.5	6.3	40.6	7.9	1.5	2.4
Dan, South Boston, Va	132	264	2.35	7.5	24	1.1	5.6	1.5	6.8	.0	33	3.4	1.1	3.2	71	38.0	2.5	8.9	2.4	10.7	25.3	5.4	1.7	5.1
Delaware, Lambertville, N. J	16	26	1.74	.6	9.0	.07	12	3.3	5.4	.0	46	12	1.1	2.9	70	13.1	.2	17.5	4.8	7.9	33.2	17.5	1.6	4.2
Des Moines, Keosauqua, Iowa	542	642	1.09	.....	22	.36	58	21	17	.0	216	71	3.3	4.8	312	7.2	.2	19.0	6.9	5.6	35.0	23.4	1.1	1.6
Embarrass:																								
Charleston, Ill	155	140	.9	.....	17	.34	51	24	13	.....	249	31	7.6	4.9	270	6.3	.2	18.8	8.9	4.8	45	11.4	2.8	1.8
Lawrenceville, Ill	118	66	.7	.....	17	.53	44	19	28	.....	195	35	3.7	35	283	6.1	.3	15.8	6.8	10.0	24.5	12.6	1.3	12.6
Erie, Lake, Buffalo, N. Y	41	Tr.	.....	.....	5.9	.07	31	7.6	6.5	3.1	114	13	.3	8.7	133	4.5	.1	23.4	5.7	4.9	44.8	9.8	.2	6.6
Flint, Albany, Ga	100	58	.67	.....	24	.86	8.8	1.4	[a]7.0	.0	31	[c]6.0	.6	2.8	67	35.8	[b]1.8	13.0	2.1	10.4	22.8	9.0	.9	4.2
Fox:																								
Elgin, Ill	34	23	.7	.....	12	.15	51	30	11	.....	268	38	2.4	5.2	290	4.3	.1	18.1	10.6	3.9	46.8	13.5	.9	1.8
Ottawa, Ill	94	87	1.2	.....	11	.20	60	32	14	.....	275	61	4.9	7.9	335	3.4	.1	18.4	9.8	4.3	41.4	18.7	1.5	2.4
Grand, Grand Rapids, Mich	37	43	1.61	1.1	14	.07	50	19	10	8.5	214	33	2.3	7.7	258	5.5	.0	21.9	7.4	3.9	44.5	12.9	.9	3.0
Hudson, Hudson, N. Y	13	16	1.26	.7	11	.15	21	3.8	7.9	.0	73	16	.8	4.0	108	10.9	.2	20.9	3.8	7.8	35.7	15.9	.8	4.0
Huron, Lake, Port Huron, Mich.	Tr.	Tr.	.....	.....	12	.04	24	7.0	4.4	1.8	[b]100	6.2	.4	2.8	108	11.1	.0	22.3	6.5	4.1	47.4	5.8	.4	2.4

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La Salle, Ill	159	136	.8	.....	12	.21	50	22	16	.....	203	50	6.6	13	275	4.6	.1	16.8	8.1	6.4	36.7	18.1	2.9	4.9
Peoria, Ill	43	26	.8	.....	12	.21	49	21	17	.....	198	48	7.8	13	271	4.5	.1	18.5	7.9	6.4	36.7	18.1	2.9	4.9
Kampsville, Ill	188	145	.8	.....	12	.27	47	20	18	.....	202	42	4.3	15	267	4.6	.1	18.2	7.8	7.0	38.5	16.3	1.7	5.8
Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa	168	120	.80	.....	19	.25	49	17	14	.0	210	36	2.8	3.6	247	7.8	.1	20.0	6.9	5.7	42.2	14.7	1.1	1.5
James, Richmond, Va	90	71	.96	3.9	18	.5	14	3.0	6.7	.0	60	7.1	.3	2.3	89	22.0	.9	17.1	3.7	8.2	36.2	8.7	.4	2.8
Kalamazoo, Kalamazoo, Mich	7	19	2.64	.2	17	.05	55	18	8.2	7.8	216	2.3	1.9	3.4	242	7.1	.0	22.9	7.5	3.4	47.3	9.6	.8	1.4
Kankakee, Kankakee, Ill	50	32	.7	.....	15	.27	58	21	12	.....	215	57	4.1	4.9	288	5.4	.1	20.8	7.5	4.3	38.1	20.5	1.5	1.8
Kaskaskia:																								
Carlisle, Ill	184	126	.7	.....	17	.39	47	20	14	.....	213	34	4.8	6.9	248	6.8	.2	18.9	8.0	5.6	42.1	13.7	1.9	2.8
Shelbyville, Ill	110	84	.9	.....	16	.23	53	26	13	.....	262	34	6.9	5.6	279	5.6	.1	18.7	9.2	4.6	45.4	12.0	2.4	2.0
Kentucky, Frankfort, Ky	150	142	.93	4.7	16	.49	21	3.7	6.8	2.4	73	8.3	2.5	2.0	104	16.1	.7	21.1	3.7	6.9	38.6	8.4	2.5	2.0
Lehigh, South Bethlehem, Pa	14	21	2.46	1.2	8.8	.10	14	5.7	7.5	.0	40	30	2.2	4.9	95	9.5	.1	15.0	6.1	8.1	21.2	32.3	2.4	5.3
Little Vermilion, Streator, Ill	107	78	.7	.....	14	.22	55	29	18	.....	241	68	12	6.9	325	4.4	.1	17.1	9.0	5.6	36.9	21.1	3.7	2.1
Little Wabash, Carmi, Ill	135	68	.5	.....	26	2.0	20	9.1	15	.....	88	32	2.1	7.5	176	16.6	1.3	12.7	5.8	9.5	27.6	20.4	1.3	4.8
Maumee, Toledo, Ohio	143	112	.95	3.4	17	.27	57	16	24	2.5	173	48	4.5	40	298	5.8	.1	19.4	5.4	8.2	29.7	16.3	1.5	13.6
Miami, Dayton, Ohio	84	94	1.46	2.0	17	.15	59	24	9.0	5.8	244	40	8.6	4.1	289	5.9	.1	20.5	8.3	3.1	43.8	13.9	3.0	1.4
Michigan, Lake, St. Ignace, Mich	Tr.	Tr.	.....	.....	10	.04	26	8.2	4.7	2.9	112	7.2	.3	2.7	118	8.5	.0	22.2	7.0	4.0	49.6	6.1	.3	2.3
Minnesota, Shakopee, Minn	97	142	1.18	.....	23	.09	82	35	23	.0	296	144	2.0	4.7	486	5.0	.0	17.9	7.6	5.0	31.7	31.4	.4	1.0
Mississippi:																								
Minneapolis, Minn	10	7.9	1.13	.....	15	.07	40	14	10	.0	188	18	1.4	1.6	200	7.8	.1	20.8	7.3	5.2	48.0	9.3	.7	.8
Moline, Ill	117	106	.9	.....	16	.39	33	13	10	.....	152	24	1.8	3.7	179	9.0	.3	18.7	7.3	5.7	42.3	13.6	1.0	2.1
Quincy, Ill	173	119	.8	.....	18	.46	36	16	11	.....	175	25	2.2	4.4	203	8.8	.3	19.1	7.7	5.2	42.9	12.9	1.2	1.9
Chester, Ill	858	634	.8	.....	22	.39	44	16	21	.....	174	56	2.7	9.8	269	8.5	.2	17.1	6.2	8.2	33.2	21.8	1.0	3.8
Memphis, Tenn	556	519	.97	.....	24	.61	36	12	19	.0	129	43	1.7	8.6	202	11.5	.4	17.3	5.7	9.1	30.5	20.6	.8	4.1
New Orleans, La	.....	.....	.....	.....	11	[b].53	32	8.4	13	.0	111	24	2.5	9.7	166	7.1	[a].6	20.6	5.4	8.4	34.7	15.4	1.6	6.2
Missouri:																								
Florence, Nebr	1,726	2,059	1.16	.....	31	.44	65	20	49	.0	203	168	1.8	8.9	454	7.0	.2	14.6	4.5	11.0	22.5	37.8	.4	2.0
Kansas City, Kans	1,909	2,032	1.04	.....	37	.73	62	18	44	.0	202	135	2.2	13	426	9.0	.2	15	4.4	10.7	24.2	32.8	.5	3.2
Ruegg, Mo	1,931	1,890	1.02	.....	29	.51	52	16	36	.0	178	104	2.9	12	346	8.5	.2	15.3	4.7	10.6	25	30.6	.8	3.5
Monongahela, Elizabeth, Pa	82	84	1.11	3.7	8.4	.49	12	2.2	7.3	.0	18	33	1.8	3.2	81	10.8	.9	15.5	2.8	9.4	11.5	42.6	2.3	4.2
Muskingum, Zanesville, Ohio	96	70	1.71	3.2	14	.18	43	9.5	23	1.3	115	43	1.6	40	244	6.0	.1	18.5	4.1	9.9	25.0	18.5	.7	17.2
Neuse, Raleigh, N. C	78	68	.79	2.8	26	1.4	5.9	1.8	7.9	.0	35	3.4	.3	4.4	73	37.7	2.9	8.6	2.6	11.5	25.0	4.9	.4	6.4
North Platte, North Platte, Nebr	307	311	.95	.....	40	.26	46	12	32	.0	165	76	1.2	6.9	295	13.5	.1	15.6	4.1	10.8	27.5	25.7	.4	2.3
Oconee, Dublin, Ga	208	171	.78	.....	21	.68	8.5	1.6	8.8	.0	37	6.2	1.0	3.4	68	30.2	1.4	12.2	2.3	12.6	26.1	8.9	1.4	4.9
Ocmulgee, Macon, Ga	230	174	.72	.....	26	.9	6.3	1.2	8.3	.0	28	4.9	.7	2.8	69	39.8	2.0	9.6	1.8	12.7	21.2	7.5	1.1	4.3
Oostanaula, Rome, Ga	128	109	.80	.....	24	.7	12	2.6	9.2	.0	53	4.1	.4	1.8	82	29.6	1.2	14.8	3.2	11.3	32.2	5.0	.5	2.2
Oswegatchie, Ogdensburg, N. Y	8	10	1.38	.7	9.4	.21	13	3.5	5.3	.0	53	8.2	.4	.4	77	14.1	.4	19.5	5.3	8.0	39.2	12.3	.6	.6
Pearl, Jackson, Miss	56	46	.93	.....	18	.37	7.1	1.1	8.9	.0	32	6.4	.7	3.4	59	29.1	.8	11.5	1.8	14.4	25.5	10.3	1.1	5.5
Pedee, Peedee, N. C	131	94	.76	.....	26	.31	6.9	1.3	8.9	.0	32	4.0	.6	3.1	69	38.8	.7	10.3	1.9	13.3	23.6	6.0	.8	4.6
Platte:																								
Columbus, Nebr	374	300	.81	.....	32	.20	63	18	48	.0	186	152	1.3	14	437	7.6	.1	15.0	4.3	11.4	21.8	36.2	.3	3.[illegible]
Fremont, Nebr	379	392	1.03	.....	47	.26	47	11	30	.0	178	66	1.0	6.4	302	15.9	.1	15.9	3.7	10.1	29.6	22.3	.3	2.1
Potomac, Cumberland, Md	28	29	1.59	3.0	8.2	.14	24	4.6	9.0	.0	36	58	.9	6.4	130	6.4	.2	18.6	3.5	7.0	13.7	45.0	.7	4.9
Raritan, Boundbrook, N. J	37	36	1.16	1.2	16	.15	12	3.9	9.1	.0	51	12	1.9	4.7	85	18.8	.3	14.1	4.6	10.7	29.6	14.1	2.3	5.5
Red, Shreveport, La	790	870	1.11	.....	30	1.1	74	17	90	4.6	135	140	.4	121	561	5.5	.3	13.6	3.1	16.5	13.1	25.7	.0	22.2

[a] Based on the assumption for anhydrous residue that the average content of bicarbonates is 20 parts. [b] $Fe_2O_3 + Al_2O_3$. [c] Approximate.

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Summary of results of mineral analyses of surface waters for eastern United States—Continued.

Source of sample (river, except as noted).	Average mineralization (parts per million).															Chemical composition of mineral matter (per cent of anhydrous residue).								
	Turbidity.	Suspended matter.	Coefficient of fineness.	Total iron (Fe).	Silica (SiO_2).	Iron (Fe).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Bicarbonate radicle (HCO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).	Total dissolved solids.	Silica (SiO_2).	Oxide of iron (Fe_2O_3).	Calcium (Ca).	Magnesium (Mg).	Sodium and potassium (Na+K).	Carbonate radicle (CO_3).	Sulphate radicle (SO_4).	Nitrate radicle (NO_3).	Chlorine (Cl).
Reservoir:																								
Cartter, Ill	72	33	.5	.....	16	1.9	9.0	3.6	8.6	.....	34	16	2.1	5.2	92	20.3	2.4	11.4	4.6	10.9	21.0	20.2	2.6	6.6
Cypress, Ill	155	59	.5	.....	29	3.7	18	7.0	13	.....	67	33	2.2	6.8	165	19.9	2.5	12.4	4.8	8.9	22.6	22.7	1.5	4.7
Joppa, Ill	116	66	.5	.....	22	3.5	10	4.0	9.0	.....	43	19	1.9	4.3	111	23.2	3.7	10.5	4.2	9.5	22.4	20.1	2.0	4.4
Marion, Ill	97	43	.5	.....	13	.93	15	8.2	17	.....	51	45	1.7	8.3	140	9.7	.7	11.2	6.1	12.6	18.7	33.5	1.3	6.2
Rio Grande, Laredo, Tex	2,475	.....	.....	.....	29	3.6	104	23	119	.0	178	228	.....	164	791	3.8	.5	13.7	3.0	15.7	11.6	30.1	.....	21.6
Roanoke, Randolph, Va	169	127	.....	7.7	21	.95	9.5	3.5	5.9	.0	53	4.4	.5	2.2	79	28.2	1.8	12.8	4.7	7.9	35.1	5.9	.7	3.0
Rock:																								
Rockford, Ill	134	92	.7	.....	15	.44	45	25	10	.....	252	22	4.1	4.6	250	6.0	.2	18.0	10.0	4.0	49.6	8.8	1.6	1.8
Sterling, Ill	229	236	1.2	.....	15	.31	49	27	12	.....	263	25	3.8	5.5	267	5.6	.2	18.3	10.1	4.5	48.4	9.4	1.4	2.1
St. Lawrence, Ogdensburg, N. Y	4.5	Tr.	.....	.....	6.6	.05	31	7.2	6.3	2.9	116	12	.3	7.7	134	5.0	.1	23.6	5.5	4.8	45.7	9.2	.2	5.9
Saluda, Columbia, S. C	72	54	.71	.....	21	.38	8.4	1.3	[a] 6.0	.0	33	[a] 5.0	.43	3.5	62	33.6	.9	13.5	2.1	9.6	26.0	8.0	.7	5.6
Sangamon:																								
Decatur, Ill	126	87	.7	.....	19	.27	55	26	14	.....	268	35	8.5	5.4	293	6.4	.1	18.7	8.8	4.7	44.7	11.9	2.9	1.8
Springfield, Ill	74	39	.8	.....	16	.32	52	24	16	.....	247	37	3.4	7.5	276	5.8	.1	18.7	8.6	5.8	43.8	13.3	1.2	2.7
Chandlerville, Ill	154	102	.7	.....	15	.32	52	25	15	.....	255	36	6.1	7.6	282	5.3	.1	18.4	8.8	5.3	44.4	12.8	2.2	2.7
Savannah, Augusta, Ga	172	142	.77	.....	23	.44	5.7	.8	12	.0	30	6.0	.6	2.1	60	35.0	.9	8.7	1.2	18.3	22.6	9.1	1.0	3.2
Shenandoah, Millville, W. Va	31	39	1.64	.9	15	.08	32	8.2	6.7	1.3	132	6.2	2.6	3.0	140	10.7	.1	22.8	5.9	4.8	47.3	4.4	1.9	2.1
Superior, Lake, Sault Ste. Marie, Mich	2	Tr.	.....	.....	7.4	.06	13	3.1	3.2	.0	56	2.1	.5	1.1	60	12.7	.2	22.4	5.3	5.5	47.5	3.6	.9	1.9
Susquehanna:																								
West Pittston, Pa	14	22	4.00	1.0	10	.12	18	3.4	6.3	.0	63	14	1.5	4.2	90	11.3	.2	20.4	3.8	7.1	35.0	15.8	1.7	4.7
Williamsport, Pa	10	18	2.23	.9	7.6	.11	12	3.4	6.0	.0	28	26	.7	4.0	74	10.3	.2	16.3	4.6	8.1	18.8	35.3	1.0	5.4
Danville, Pa	16	21	1.73	.8	8.7	.09	21	4.6	8.9	.0	54	31	3.4	8.1	112	7.7	.1	18.7	4.1	7.9	23.7	27.6	3.0	7.2
Tennessee:																								
Knoxville, Tenn	204	156	.81	.....	25	.54	22	4.3	8.2	.0	86	6.4	.8	9.6	122	21.0	.6	18.4	3.6	6.9	35.5	5.4	.6	8.0
Gilbertsville, Ky	153	127	.90	.....	20	.39	19	4.1	7.7	.0	72	11	1.2	3.0	101	19.6	.6	18.6	4.0	7.5	34.8	10.8	1.2	2.9
Tombigbee, Epes, Ala	126	100	.82	.....	25	.63	18	1.8	10	.0	67	6.3	.6	3.0	94	25.4	.9	18.3	1.8	10.1	33.5	6.4	.6	3.0
Wabash:																								
Logansport, Ind	132	117	.85	.....	14	.23	82	26	142	0	234	79	5.9	202	807	1.8	.0	10.7	4.6	18.5	10.1	10.3	.8	56.2
Vincennes, Ind	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	13	[illegible]	61	22	25	0	230	55	6.4	36	336	3.9	1	18.4	6.6	7.6	34.1	10.0	1.0	10.8
Waterloo, Canada	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	0	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	17.0	0	9.5	2.7	12.4	[illegible]	0.4	0	4.2

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White:																								
Azalia, Ind.	52	48	1.18	.....	15	.14	61	23	9.5	.0	276	30	5.6	3.1	279	5.3	.1	21.5	8.1	3.3	48.0	10.6	2.0	1.1
Indianapolis, Ind.	39	38	1.04	.....	14	.15	74	29	48	.0	291	58	6.1	78	450	3.1	.0	16.4	6.4	10.7	31.8	12.9	1.4	17.3
Wisconsin, Portage, Wis.	7	4.6	.86	.....	13	.22	14	6.8	8.1	.0	58	17	.9	2.1	98	1.43	.3	15.4	7.5	8.9	31.5	18.8	1.0	2.3
Youghiogheny, McKeesport, Pa.	141	163	1.20	18	8.5	[b]4.70	23	6.7	9.3	.0	0	123	1.1	4.5	197	4.7	[b]2.6	12.7	3.7	5.2	.0	68	.6	2.5

Approximate.

[b] $Fe_2O_3+Al_2O_3$.

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INDEX.

A.

Page.

uracy, check on..... 30-38
limits of..... 28-30, 34
relation of, to amount of water analyzed. 38
to source of water analyzed..... 36-38
to total solids in water..... 34-36
dity, determination of..... 23
cnowledgments to those aiding..... 8-9
bama River, water of, analyses of..... 46, 116
bany, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 62, 116
egheny River, water of, analyses of..... 47, 116
monium acetate solution, preparation of.. 24
alyses, accuracy of. *See* Accuracy.
collection of..... 6-7
computation of, methods of..... 9-34
methods of, departure from..... 27-28
expression of..... 39-42
objects of..... 6
rejection of..... 38-39
results of..... 46-119
droscoggin River, water of, analyses of... 27-28, 48, 116
kansas River, water of, analyses of..... 49, 116
gusta, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 99, 118
stin, Tex., water at, analyses of..... 56, 116
alia, Ind., water at, analyses of..... 111, 119

B.

dley, E. H. S., work of..... 8
rr, W. M., work of..... 8
carbonates, determination of..... 21
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
g Muddy River, water of, analyses of..... 116
g Vermilion River, water of, analyses of... 116
irmingham, Ala., water of, analyses of.... 51, 116
ound Brook, N. J., water at, analyses of... 94, 117
razos River, water of, analyses of..... 50, 116
runswick, Me., water at, analyses of..... 48, 116
uffalo River, water of, analyses of..... 62, 116
ushong, F. W., work of..... 8

C.

ache River, water of, analyses of..... 116
ahaba River, water of, analyses of..... 51, 116
ain, J. R., and Stokes, H. N., on determination of iron..... 16-17
alcium, determination of..... 17-19, 27
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
'ifornia State Board of Examiners, cooperation of..... 7
amden, S. C., water at, analyses of..... 110, 118
ape Fear River, water of, analyses of..... 52, 116
arbonates, determination of..... 21
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
arlisle, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
arrni, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117

Page.

Cartter, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Cedar Rapids, Iowa, water at, analyses of... 53, 116
Cedar River, water of, analyses of..... 53, 116
Chandlerville, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Charleston, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Chattahoochee River, water of, analyses of.. 54, 116
Chester, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Chippewa River, water of, analyses of..... 55, 116
Chlorine, determination of..... 22
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Chistomanos, A. C., on ionic form..... 41
Clarke, F. W., on hypothetical combinations. 40
Collins, W. D., work of..... 8
Colorado River, water of, analyses of..... 56, 116
Columbia, S. C., water at, analyses of..... 98, 118
Columbus, Nebr., water at, analyses of..... 91, 117
Composition of water, changes in..... 9-10
importance of..... 5-6
Contamination of water, varieties of..... 5-6
Cumberland, Md., water at, analyses of..... 93, 117
Cumberland River, water of, analyses of. 57, 58, 116
Cypress, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118

D.

Dan River, water of, analyses of..... 59, 116
Danville, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Danville, Pa., water at, analyses of..... 104, 118
Dayton, Ohio, water at, analyses of..... 72, 116, 117
Decatur, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Delaware River, water of, analyses of..... 60, 116
Des Moines River, water of, analyses of..... 61, 116
Determinations. *See particular constituents.*
Dissolved solids. *See* Solids.
Dole, R. B., work of..... 8
Dublin, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 85, 117

E

Eaton, F. M., work of..... 8
Eau Claire, Wis., water of, analyses of..... 55, 116
Elgin, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Elizabeth, Pa., water at, analyses of..... 81, 117
Embarras River, water of, analyses of..... 116
Epes, Ala., water at, analyses of..... 107, 118
Erie, Lake, water of, analyses of..... 62, 116
Error, limits of..... 10
See also Accuracy.
Evans, J. K., work of..... 8
Examination of water, methods of..... 9-28
methods of, departure from..... 27-28

F.

Field and laboratory work, outline of..... 7-8
Flint River, water of, analyses of..... 62, 116
Florence, Nebr., water at, analyses of..... 78, 117
Fox River, water of, analyses of..... 116
Frankfort, Ky., water at, analyses of..... 69, 117
Fremont, Nebr., water at, analyses of..... 92, 117

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G.

Page.
Gilbertsville, Ky., water at, analyses of... 106, 118
Grand Rapids, Mich., water of, analyses of.. 63, 116
Grand River, water at, analyses of..... 63, 116

H.

Haywood, J. K., and Smith, B. H., on mineral-water classification..... 40
Hoyt, J. C., work of..... 8
Hudson, N. Y., water at, analyses of..... 64, 116
Hudson River, water of, analyses of..... 64, 116
Huron, Lake, water of, analyses of..... 65, 116
Hygienic quality, importance of..... 5
Hypothetical combination, methods of..... 40–42

I.

Illinois, University of, cooperation of..... 8
Illinois Geologic Survey, cooperation of..... 8
Illinois River, water of, analyses of..... 117
Illinois State Water Survey, cooperation of.. 8
Indianapolis, Ind., water at, analyses of... 112, 119
Industrial use of water, requirements for.... 5
Ionic form, results expressed in..... 39–42
Iowa City, Iowa, water at, analyses of..... 66, 117
Iowa River, water of, analyses of..... 66, 117
Iron, determination of..... 16–17, 23
determination of, accuracy of..... 29

J.

Jackson, D. D., turbidimeter of..... 11
Jackson, Miss., water at, analyses of..... 89, 117
James River, water of, analyses of..... 67, 117
Joppa, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118

K.

Kahlenberg, L., and Lincoln, A. T., on silica. 32–33
Kalamazoo, Mich., water at, analyses of.... 68, 117
Kalamazoo River, water of, analyses of..... 68, 117
Kampsville, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Kankakee, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Kankakee River, water of, analyses of..... 117
Kansas, University of, cooperation of..... 8
Kansas City, Kans., water at, analyses of... 79, 117
Kansas State Board of Health, cooperation of. 8
Kentucky River, water of, analyses of..... 69, 117
Keosauqua, Iowa., water at, analyses of..... 61, 116
Kittaning, Pa., water at, analysis of 47, 116
Knoxville, Tenn., water at, analyses of.... 105, 118
Kuttawa, Ky., water at, analyses of..... 58, 116

L.

Lambertville, N. J., water at, analyses of... 60, 116
Laredo, Tex., water at, analyses of..... 96, 118
La Salle, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Lawrenceville, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Lehigh River, water of, analyses of..... 70, 117
Leighton, M. O., work of..... 8
Lincoln, A. T., and Kahlenberg, L., on silica. 32–33
Little Rock, Ark., water at, analyses of..... 49, 116
Little Vermilion River, water of, analyses of. 117
Little Wabash River, water of, analyses of... 117
Logansport, Ind., water at, analyses of.... 108, 118

M.

McCreary, P. L., work of..... 8
McKeesport, Pa., water at, analyses of. 114–115, 119
Macon, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 86, 117

Page.
Magnesium, determination of..... 19, 27
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Marion, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Maumee River, water of, analyses of..... 71, 117
Memphis, Tenn., water at, analyses of..... 76, 117
Methods. *See* Examination.
Methyl orange solution, preparation of..... 25
Miami River, water of, analyses of..... 72, 117
Michigan, Lake, water of, analyses of..... 73, 117
Millville, W. Va., water at, analyses of..... 100, 118
Minerals, dissolved, harmfulness of..... 5
Minneapolis, Minn., water at, analyses of... 75, 117
Minnesota River, water of, analyses of..... 74, 117
Mississippi River, analyses of..... 27, 75–77, 117
Missouri River, water of, analyses of..... 78–80, 117
Moline, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Monongahela River, water of, analyses of... 81, 117
Mounds, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Murphysboro, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116
Muskingum River, water of, analyses of.... 82, 117

N.

Nashville, Tenn., water at, analyses of..... 57, 116
Neuse River, water of, analyses of..... 83, 117
New Orleans, water at, analyses of..... 77, 117
Nitrate solution, preparation of..... 26
Nitrates, determination of..... 22–23
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
North Platte, Nebr., water at, analyses of.. 84, 117
North Platte River, water of, analyses of.... 84, 117

O.

Ocmulgee River, water at, analyses of..... 86, 117
Oconee River, water of, analyses of..... 85, 117
Ogdensburg, N. Y., water at, analyses of 88, 98, 117, 118
Oostanaula River, water of, analyses of..... 87, 117
Oswegatchie River, water of, analyses of.... 88, 117
Ottawa, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 116

P.

Palmer, Chase, work of..... 8
Parts per million, results expressed in..... 39
Pearl River, water of, analyses of..... 89, 117
Pedee, N. C., water at, analyses of..... 90, 117
Pedee River, water of, analyses of..... 90, 117
Peoria, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Phenolphthalein solution, preparation of.... 25
Phenosulphonic acid, preparation of..... 26
Platte River, water of, analyses of..... 91, 92, 117
Portage, Wis., water at, analyses of..... 113, 119
Porter, J. L., work of..... 7
Port Huron, Mich., water at, analyses of.... 65, 116
Potability, determination of..... 6
determination of, analyses for..... 6
requirements for..... 5
Potassium, determination of..... 20–21, 33
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Potassium acid sulphate solution, preparation of..... 25
Potassium chromate solution, preparation of. 25
Potassium permanganate solution, preparation of..... 24
Potomac River, water of, analyses of..... 93, 117

Q.

Quality of water, study of..... 6–8
Quincy, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117

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R.

Page.

Raleigh, N. C., water at., analyses of..... 83,117
Randolph, Va., water at, analyses of..... 97,118
Raritan River, water of, analyses of..... 94,117
Red River, water of, analyses of..... 95,117
Richmond, Va., water at, analyses of..... 67,117
Rio Grande River, water of, analyses of.... 96,118
Roanoke River, water of, analyses of..... 97,118
Roberts, M. G., on determination of magnesium..... 19
work of..... 8
Robinson, F. C., work of..... 7
Rockford, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Rock River, water of, analyses of..... 118
Rome, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 87,117
Ruegg, Mo., water at, analyses of..... 80,117

S.

St. Ignace, Mich., water at, analyses of..... 73,117
St. Lawrence River, water of, analyses of... 98,118
Salt solution, preparation of..... 26
Saluda River, water of, analyses of..... 98,118
Samples, collection of..... 10
subdivision of..... 10
Sampling stations, location of..... 42,45
Sangamon River, water of, analyses of..... 118
Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., water at, analyses of..... 101,118
Savannah River, water of, analyses of..... 99,118
Scope of paper, outline of..... 6
Selma, Ala., water at, analyses of..... 46,116
Shakopee, Minn., water at, analyses of..... 74,117
Shelbyville, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Shenandoah River, water of, analyses of... 100,118
Shreveport, La., water at, analyses of..... 95,117
Silica, determination of..... 15
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
occurrence of, mode of..... 32-33
Silver solution, preparation of..... 26
Smith, B. H., and Haywood, J. K., on mineral-water classification..... 40
Sodium, determination of..... 20-21,33
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Sodium ammonium phosphate solution, preparation of..... 24
Sodium carbonate solution, preparation of... 26
Sodium chloride solution, preparation of.... 26
Solids, dissolved, determination of..... 13-15
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Solids, suspended, determination of..... 12-13
determination of, accuracy of..... 13,29
Solids, total, determination of, check on..... 30-31
determination of, error in..... 31-36
Solutions, preparation of..... 24-26

Page.

South, rivers in, analyses of..... 28
South Bethlehem, water at, analyses of..... 70,117
South Boston, Va., water at, analyses of.... 59,116
Spaulding, H. S., work of..... 8
Springfield, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Stabler, Herman, on classification of waters.. 41
work of..... 8
Sterling, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 118
Stokes, H. M., and Cain, J. R., on determination of iron..... 16-17
Streator, Ill., water at, analyses of..... 117
Study, methods of..... 9-28
Sulphates, determination of..... 20
determination of, accuracy of..... 29
Superior, Lake, water of, analyses of..... 101,118
Suspended solids. *See* Solids.
Susquehanna River, water of, analyses of.... 102-104,118
Sutton, Francis, on determination of calcium. 17-18

T.

Tennessee River, water of, analyses of. 105-106,118
Toledo, Ohio, water at, analyses of..... 71,117
Tombigbee River, water of, analyses of.... 107,118
Turbidity, determination of..... 11-12
determination of, accuracy of..... 12,29

U.

Uranium solution, preparation of..... 24-25

V.

Van Winkle, Walton, work of..... 8
Vincennes, Ind., water at, analyses of..... 109,118

W.

Wabash River, water of, analyses of... 108-109,118
Waco, Tex., water at, analyses of..... 50,116
Wateree River, water of, analyses of..... 110,118
Water, amount of, relation of, to percentage of error in analysis..... 38
source of, relation of, to percentage of error in analysis..... 36-38
Weith, A. J., work of..... 8
West Pittson, Pa., water at, analyses of... 102,118
West Point, Ga., water at, analyses of..... 54,116
White River, water of, analyses of..... 111,112,119
Williamsport, Pa., water at, analyses of... 103,118
Wilmington, N. C., water at, analyses of.... 52,116
Wisconsin River, water of, analyses of..... 113,119

Y.

Youghiogheny River, water of, analyses of... 114-115,119

Z.

Zanesville, Ohio, water at, analyses of..... 82,117

O

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